

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

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## Educational News and Editorial Comment

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### WHAT'S WRONG WITH THE TEACHING OF SCIENCE?

A RECENT issue of the *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin* carried the following editorial concerning the teaching of science in high schools of Michigan. It was called "Improving the Teaching of Science" and was written by Francis D. Curtis, professor of secondary education and of the teaching of science and head of the department of science in the University High School of the University of Michigan.

The teaching of science in many Michigan high schools is at a low level. This statement does not apply to the high schools of the larger cities or to a considerable number of smaller schools in which competently trained teachers with adequate facilities and equipment offer work in science on a par with the best found anywhere. It does apply, however, to many small public and private schools. In such schools general science, especially if it is offered in the eighth grade, is not infrequently assigned to teachers having insufficient training and occasionally to those having no training in science. Lacking an adequate background in science and obsessed by the not unjustified fear that some of the pupils will bring to class a better understanding of the subject matter than they themselves possess, these teachers seek the line of least resistance by making the course merely one of lesson-hearing, in which the pupils are encouraged to recite only "what it says in the book." The situation is often no better with respect to biology, especially when that course is offered in five single forty-five minute periods a week in the ninth grade. In this subject as in general science, under-trained or untrained teachers all too frequently offer a lesson-hearing course un-

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leavened by laboratory work, projects, or any other activities inside or outside the classroom.

The situation with respect to physics and chemistry is somewhat better than that governing general science and biology. It is rarely that a teacher is assigned to these advanced courses in science unless he has had some college or university training for them. The conditions under which he must present the work, however, often render its proper teaching impossible. The facilities for teaching the course in physics or chemistry commonly include a "laboratory"; but, in a discouragingly large number of small high schools, the "laboratory" provides only one "laboratory desk" constructed by a local carpenter or sometimes by the janitor, and lacking outlets for gas, electricity, and even hot water. The apparatus available, moreover, especially for physics, is usually inadequate in quantity, variety, and quality. Under such conditions individual pupil experimentation, which is an essential part of every science course, is unknown, work in pairs or in small groups is sporadic, and often such laboratory work as is given consists of teacher demonstrations only.

Protest and criticism of the work in science under such conditions usually invokes the statement, "We know things aren't just as they should be, but we can't spare any more money for the science work and we must maintain a science sequence for entrance to the University." The assumption is, therefore, that though the work in science may scarcely be worthy the name, it should nevertheless be accepted and approved. The patent absurdity of offering the work solely or even chiefly for the purpose of providing "college-entrance units," rather than with the intent of providing for every pupil experiences that are practically, culturally, and socially valuable, is of course manifest.

The implications of this discussion are obvious. Either the work in every science course should be put on an acceptable plane, or the course should not be offered at all. The mere desire on the part of the school authorities to offer courses in science whatever may be their purposes in so doing, does not justify the inclusion of these courses in the program of studies unless they can be presented creditably. If the resources available to a school cannot be made to provide adequate equipping for the entire sequence of general science, biology, chemistry, and physics, then it would be better to reduce the science sequence to only those courses for the teaching of which adequate provision can be made; other courses in this field should be offered only if and when they can be taught acceptably. "Acceptably" should here be interpreted to include in its connotation the assignment of these courses to only thoroughly qualified teachers at whose disposal are sufficient apparatus, equipment, and facilities for conducting a worth-while course.

The editorial is far from an admission of the complete bankruptcy of science-teaching in the high school, but it nevertheless acknowledges that all is not well in this important area of instruction. To be sure, admissions along analogous lines can be made, and are being

made, for all areas of the curriculum; science is only one of the fields not rising to all its possibilities.

If we understand him correctly, the author puts his finger on two sources of weakness, one of which is the lack of specialized preparation in teachers and the other, inadequate material facilities for courses given. We would not question the accuracy of the diagnosis, except as concerns its comprehensiveness. Doubtless the author himself had no intention of reviewing in a brief editorial all the ills of science-teaching. We would urge that all these ills do not reside in general science and biology, courses usually given in lower high-school years, and Professor Curtis would probably be among the first to argue that these general courses have served in many ways as vehicles of reform in secondary-school science. There has been much complaint in recent years against the courses in science typical of later high-school years, notably, physics and chemistry—courses for which Professor Curtis believes teachers are better prepared than for general science and biology. One of these courses in particular, physics, has lost much ground when measured by proportionate enrolments today compared with a quarter-century ago.

Dissatisfaction with the conventional specialized courses in later high-school and early college years is reflected in current efforts to provide new courses in science. Experimentation in later high-school years seems to be with general courses of a more advanced character than the general science and biology now current in lower high-school years. Most of the new courses are courses in general physical science, although some are even more widely representative of both physical and biological science. The approach in these new courses is through application of scientific principles, and the emphasis throughout is on application, as is implied in the frequent use of the terms "concrete" and "practical" in describing them. Some of these courses seem almost to lose sight of theory. At the lower college level experimentation is also with general courses, known as "survey" courses, but the emphasis is much less on application than on theory. The question arises whether it would not be possible to join the two approaches in courses at the senior high school level, with consequent enhancement of the significance of science in education.

The fact is that secondary-school science, particularly at the level of the senior high school, is in need of vitalization. Youth too infrequently care for the offering in its present form; as taught, it appears to afford too little understanding of the modern world; and it falls short of imparting an adequate appreciation and use of scientific thought in an "age of science." We do not pretend to know the principles on which the new teaching of science should be erected, nor is this the place to present them if we knew them. However, by some means, increased vitalization of senior high school science must be, and will be, accomplished.

#### POSTGRADUATE STUDY IN HIGH SCHOOLS

**A**N ARTICLE appeared in the *New York Sun* dealing with a recommendation for two-year postgraduate courses in day and evening schools of New York City. We quote from this article the following excerpts.

A recommendation that two-year postgraduate courses be established in both day and evening schools for secondary-school graduates who cannot find employment or afford to go to college was sent to the Board of Education today by the Advisory Board on Industrial Education. The advisory board also urged a state-wide comprehensive study of the youth problem and the educational needs of unemployed youth.

The proposed new courses would accommodate graduates of both the academic and vocational high schools and would be conducted in the central vocational schools, as explained by Mrs. Betty Hawley, secretary of the advisory board.

The proposal also calls for amendment of the state law so as to provide state grants to help the city finance the project, and revision of the compulsory continuation school attendance law "to bring about a more equitable adjustment of the educational laws affecting the youth problem of the state in relation to present and future economic trends."

Academic school graduates who enter the proposed postgraduate course would receive vocational training to equip them for a job in business or industry, while vocational graduates who cannot find employment would be offered additional academic studies to broaden their cultural background as well as advanced technical courses to equip them better for taking their places in industry.

In a report submitted to the school board, to Superintendent of Schools Harold G. Campbell, and to Associate Superintendent William E. Grady, head of the vocational division, the advisory board points to the difficulties that young men and women just out of school have in finding employment.

"These young people are feeling the need for further training to fit them more appropriately for employment," the board states, reminding the school officials that the youths' age range is from eighteen to twenty-two.

"The academic high school graduate is anxious to equip himself for employment with some trade training," the advisory board goes on. "The vocational high school graduate is desirous of obtaining a higher academic standing; very often he is anxious to obtain enough high-school credits for college entrance.

"These opportunities are denied them because no such provision is made in our present educational setup," the report continues. "In the case of the academic high school graduate, he often finds he is unable to obtain employment because he is not properly equipped. Four years ago he intended going to college, but since that time financial conditions have so changed that he finds this impossible. He now wants to learn a trade." . . .

In the postgraduate courses proposed by the board, vocational high school graduates would spend half of their time on academic work, the other half being divided equally between technical instruction carrying high-school credits and advanced trade shopwork.

Academic graduates would spend half their time on vocational shopwork, the other half being divided equally between appropriate advanced academic work and technical instruction in related vocational subjects.

Evening school courses would be similarly organized, under the advisory board's proposal, the evening students being required to complete work comparable to the day postgraduate classes to qualify for a postgraduate diploma. . . .

The advisory board consists of representatives of industry and labor, created to advise the school board on the conduct of its vocational-training program.

The report is further evidence of the inadequacy in these days of an educational system that ends for most youth with the twelfth year of schooling. It likewise suggests that the high-school level is no longer the appropriate one at which to give vocational training and that such specialized education may now advisedly be elevated to junior-college years.

A later issue of the *Sun* reported the opinion of officials of the New York school system who are considering the recommendation of the Advisory Board on Industrial Education. These officials characterized the proposal as "meeting a pressing need of the day," but they "doubted the school board's ability to find the necessary funds."

It seems much more than a fortuitous coincidence that the report of the Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in New York State contains a recommendation that has im-

portant elements of similarity with the proposal of the Advisory Board on Industrial Education. (Perhaps it is desirable to recall that this investigation was conducted by a group of nationally known educators under the leadership of Luther H. Gulick at a cost of about a half-million dollars, a cost borne by the General Education Board.) This report, again according to the *Sun*, points out the difficulty which adolescents have in obtaining work. As a means of saving youth from the demoralizing effects of idleness, the report recommends an extension of the high-school course by approximately two years of work "to enrich the life of the individual and to make better citizens." The secondary-school course would begin at the seventh year, or junior high school level, an eight-year secondary-school program being thus created. The report is indicated as opposed to the establishment of a "system of public junior colleges," but a point of view with sufficient perspective should see in the recommendation as made the essence of the junior-college idea.

The recommendations of the Advisory Board and of the Regents' Inquiry differ chiefly, if we understand them correctly from the brief reports in the *Sun*, in the nature of the program to be provided and in the fact that the Regents' Inquiry senses more adequately the relation of the upward extension of secondary-school years to the organization of the educational system.

Further comment is prompted by reverting to that aspect of the opinion of officials of New York City's school system which doubts the school board's ability to find the necessary funds. Without more knowledge of the system's finances, we are in no position to gainsay this assertion as it pertains to the immediate situation. However, we call to mind that New York City has for some time been providing postgraduate education for college-going students in its system of city colleges, which, we understand, extend through the four conventional college years and which are tuition-free. If the city does not provide some type of upward extension for non-college-going high-school graduates, it will be open to the charge of maintaining an undemocratic educational system, one which discriminates against this large and numerically dominant group of high-school graduates.

The assumption that the officials of the system who have been quoted are in earnest in recognition of the need would lead to the expectation that the provisions recommended may be made as soon

as finances permit. In the circumstances we wonder whether it would not have been much better to develop a system of junior colleges (or upward extensions of secondary schools) of such broad scope that they would serve the needs both of students who will continue in some university and of students in need of terminal education at the junior-college level (whether this terminal need is for vocational, general, or both vocational and general training).

#### THE RECEPTION OF OUR CHANGES

MANY comments have been volunteered on the new dress of the *School Review* and the increased emphasis on curriculum and instruction introduced with the opening of the school year. With only an occasional exception—we might even say with a *single* exception—the comments received have been favorable. We quote illustratively:

I am much delighted with the September issue of the *School Review*, and I heartily approve the changes that have been made.

I think you are to be congratulated on the new jacket and other new features of the *Review*. They make the publication very colorful.

I am partial to the *School Review*. The new cover, incidentally, shows it off to advantage, and I want to congratulate you on the change.

Let me congratulate you on the new format of the *School Review*. I think . . . it is a definite improvement.

We refrain from reporting the names of our correspondents, although to do so would add weight to the opinions quoted.

The single unfavorable communication is a bit longer than those already quoted and is from a person no less distinguished than any of those whose favorable comments have been cited.

For years I have respected the conservatism of the format of the *School Review* as I have respected its contents. The September issue with the new cover is before me and I am writing to say that I think it is awful. You will understand, of course, that if I were not interested in the success of the *School Review* I would not take the trouble to send you this note of friendly criticism.

We take some comfort in the fact that in this single instance of adverse comment the stricture is on the new cover and not on the content of our journal. We aim, first of all, to introduce significant substance between the covers. Also, the canons of art applicable to magazine covers are not so fixed as not to allow for wide variation in

tastes. The artist-designer of our new cover, who has been credited with some of the famous book covers of recent years, felt that he had hit it off well with our project, and we are disposed to agree with him, although we are fully aware of the impossibility of finding a design that would prove unanimously acceptable.

**DECISION FAVORABLE TO NORTH CENTRAL  
ASSOCIATION AFFIRMED**

UNDER the caption "Judicial Vindication of a Regional Association," the October *School Review* reported the outcome of a hearing before the United States District Court for the Eastern District of Illinois, which denied an injunction to enjoin the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools from removing the North Dakota Agricultural College from its list of accredited institutions. At the time we noted that attorneys for Governor Langer of North Dakota had appealed the case to the United States Circuit Court of Appeals and indicated our intention to inform our readers of the outcome of the appeal, which, it was then predicted, would be heard in October. The injunction had been dissolved by the lower court chiefly in the facts that the North Central Association is a voluntary organization and that the plaintiff had not exhausted the possibilities of appeal within the organization.

In the appeal the plaintiff (The State of North Dakota, by William Langer, Governor) insisted that the rule which ordinarily applies to voluntary associations was not applicable in the case for the reason that action was not being brought by a member of the association, but by the state of North Dakota; and further insisted that the lower court had erred in holding that "the state (North Dakota) has no greater rights than the college itself has."

The Appellate Court early in November sustained the decision of the District Court, and on the same grounds. The court stated that the only justification for the presence of the state of North Dakota, by its governor, as the named plaintiff, is that the state is entitled to assert whatever rightful claim its Agricultural College has as a member of the association. In elaboration of this point the court said:

If the rules and policies of the association offend against the public policy or specific laws of the state of North Dakota, the state by reason of its control over

its educational institutions undoubtedly can forbid their acceptance of membership in the association; or can even require their withdrawal. But the state of North Dakota acquires no rights, as a political sovereign, by reason of the membership of its state educational institutions in the association; and has no right to insist that the association modify in any degree its rules, policies, and practices in dealing with the state's educational institutions as members of the association.

#### HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

THE items of innovating practice described in the following pages concern the secondary schools in eight communities in as many states. They relate to the school periodical, a novel schedule, instruction on the piano, new courses, direct-line broadcasts from high schools, a seed show to motivate vocational agriculture, a follow-up study of graduates, and promotion of the establishment of a junior college.

*A Michigan high school magazine goes pictorial* The current trend toward the picture magazine has struck the school periodical. The example before us is the *Ottawa Hills Spectator*, published monthly by pupils of the Ottawa Hills High School of Grand Rapids, Michigan, of which H. D. MacNaughton is principal. Numbers 1 and 2 (October and November) of Volume I are profusely illustrated issues. In a statement of policy in the October *Spectator* headed "Ottawa Steps into Pictures," the reader is told: "One picture is worth ten thousand words," "The news is all in pictures," "The magazine will be unusually good to keep as an album," and "The *Spectator* will be modeled after such magazines as *Life*, *Look*, and *Click*." Among features noted in a rapid turning of pages of the first two numbers are the "Picture of the Month" (for which a prize is given); small halftones of fifty pupils with the query, "How Many of These Ottawa Hills High School Students Do You Know?" "Ottawa's Who's Who"; "We Are Thankful for Peace Today"; "Seeing Double Is No Eyesight Defect" (pictures of nine pairs of twins among the pupils); "Ottawa Now Has Seven French Horns To Give Color to Band." Principal MacNaughton reports that the *Spectator* replaces the traditional type of bi-weekly magazine and that, "judging by the demand made by the students in the community, the change was a popular one."

*A school with a two-subject double-period schedule* According to Superintendent R. A. Greig, of the Fairport Public Schools of Fairport Harbor, Ohio, the senior high school

there has for six years been operating on a two-subject double-period schedule. As the designation indicates, pupils take only two subjects concurrently and spend twice the usual time each day on each subject. The plan has been worked out on the theory that pupils, "no more than teachers," can be deeply interested in four fields at once. The schedule necessitates the laboratory approach in all subjects and is therefore welcome to the teachers, who like the unit method because there is ample time for reference work in the classroom under their supervision. Superintendent Greig says that the plan has been continued long enough to bring the conviction that "it has some very good points for the senior high school at least."

*Another school provides class instruction on piano* H. H. Glessner, principal of the high school at Berkeley, California, submits information concerning the offering of a year's work on the piano by the department of music in his school. The classes were established to meet the needs of pupils who are eager to learn to play but cannot afford to pay for lessons. An average class numbers about twenty-five pupils, none of whom have had lessons on the piano. The classes meet daily for a regular forty-minute period. Pupils are seated at movable "dummy" five-octave keyboards and play in unison on these, while groups of six pupils in rotation play on the three pianos provided in the classroom. In one semester pupils are able to learn the common chords of all keys, ordinary rhythms, and many simple melodies, and also how to transpose. Written reports are kept of practice outside the class, and weekly individual recitals culminate in a class recital to which parents and friends are invited. Some pupils without pianos at home earn the right to practice on neighbors' pianos, and other pupils use the classroom pianos before and after school. Pupils more adept help their slower classmates. Pupils who wish may proceed individually in a class in "Piano II," which extends through one semester. The description supplied by Principal Glessner states that even a partial mastery of an instrument gives the pupils a sense of achieve-

ment and brings them a new means of expression and another desirable use of leisure time.

*New course offerings in a Chicago high school* Principal Eston V. Tubbs has submitted mimeographed outlines of three new courses offered in his school, the Morgan Park High School in Chicago. The courses bear the names "Human Relations," "Continuity Writing and Radio Speech," and "Photographic Arts." The units making up the first of these courses are ten in number, and the scope of the course may be suggested by the titles of certain of the units: "Brief History of the Human Race," "Man: The Individual," "Race Relations," "Mental Hygiene and Discipline," "Development of Personality," and "Development of Citizenship." The second course contains four main divisions, namely, "Survey of Radio—Fundamentals," "Types of Programs," "Radio Script Writing," and "Radio Speech and Voice Technique." The third course, after an introductory section, is concerned with "Apparatus" (lens, optical apparatus, projection of pictures, the camera and accessories), "Materials," "Supplementary Equipment," and "Making Pictures." Principal Tubbs expresses the hope that the second semester of this school year will see the addition of still another new course, "Producer and Consumer Education."

*A commercial radio station broadcasts directly from the city high schools*

Radio station WWSW of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, has entered the second year of its direct-line broadcasts from auditoriums of the city's high schools.

Beginning last year with high schools and junior high schools, the arrangements have this year been extended to include representative work of elementary schools. Nearly a hundred broadcasts of musical programs will be presented during the year, together with a weekly dramatic program based on materials furnished by the United States Office of Education's Radio Script Exchange (which was described in the September *School Review*). The plan is based on the belief that "the integration of radio in the field of education is a progressive step forward which will ultimately benefit both."

*A seed show for motivating vocational agriculture* A recent issue of the *Nebraska Educational Journal* contains a brief report of a seed show sponsored by the pupils in vocational agriculture at Burwell, Nebraska. As described by George C. West, instructor in the subject, it was the list of prizes, perhaps, that first made the pupils enthusiastic about sponsoring the show, but, as the project developed, almost every phase brought its share of enthusiasm and careful planning. The first step was to promote the idea with the businessmen and members of the farm bureau. Fifty prizes of certified seed of the best varieties of grain sorghums headed the prize list and secured the attention of members of the Future Farmers of America and farmers themselves. Committees on advertising, seed display and arrangement, and entry were elected and were given instruction concerning their duties. The exhibit was held in the school's gymnasium. Of the more than fifty seed prizes, members of the F.F.A. won twenty-three. To Instructor West the outcomes were gratifying, including the reading by the boys of much about grain sorghums, the renting of forty acres for an experimental farm, and the intense interest in the project shown by many fathers of the boys.

*Another follow-up study of high-school graduates* The superintendent of schools in Spring Grove, Minnesota, William O. Nilsen, has sent in a brief manuscript reporting the findings of a follow-up of graduates of the local high school through the years 1903 to 1934. Data for the study were gathered by questionnaire, telephone calls, and personal contacts. A few of the results of the study may be drawn on here. At the time of the inquiry 72 per cent of the graduates were still living in their native state of Minnesota, while 47 per cent—almost half—resided in Spring Grove or the immediate vicinity. As many as 87 per cent were employed at the time the study was made. Of the men, 29 per cent were engaged in work of a commercial nature and 25 per cent in farming. Of the women, 51 per cent had domestic responsibilities, and 19 per cent were in teaching. Two-thirds of all had attended some kind of educational institution following graduation by the

high school; 33 per cent had attended teachers' colleges and 19 per cent universities or colleges.

Among the "definite values" ascribed to such a study by Superintendent Nilsen are the local interest aroused in the school, aid in program-making and curriculum-making, and information usable in the guidance program.

*Promoting establishment of a local junior college* A. T. Stanforth, supervising principal of the Sewanhaka High School at Floral Park, New York, would not claim that he is the first administrator to call the attention of the board of education and other interested groups in the community to the place of the junior college in American education. However, a mimeographed statement prepared by him for the purpose has reached the editor, and we asked Dr. Stanforth for permission to make some reference to it here. The statement is called "The People's College," and it reviews briefly the forces that are bringing the upward extension of secondary education to include junior-college years. Space is not at hand to quote the statement, but we take the liberty of paraphrasing the services which, in Principal Stanforth's opinion, the extension would provide: (1) two more years of study, developing more mature, responsible citizens; (2) a foundation for further specialization; (3) greater intellectual independence among young people; (4) elevation of the cultural level of our communities; (5) terminal training in technical and vocational fields; (6) proximity of college education to persons in need of it; (7) college education at lower cost; (8) transfer credit for students planning to continue at higher levels; and (9) improved morale, decreased loafing, and lessened crime and discontent among young people.

#### CHILD LABOR UNDER THE WAGES AND HOURS LAW

**T**HE November issue of the *American Child*, in a brief article which it calls "Wages and Hours Law Now in Effect," explains the child-labor provisions of the act and the arrangements for administering them. The timeliness of the interpretation prompts quoting the article here in full.

When the Wages and Hours Act went into effect on October 24, Elmer F. Andrews, administrator, estimated that its immediate effect would be to raise the wages of 750,000 workers now receiving less than 25 cents an hour and reduce the hours of 1,500,000 now working more than a 44-hour week, the initial standards set by the act.

Although a few establishments closed down in protest and others threatened to dismiss some of their employees, industry in general accepted the act and many employers hailed it as marking the end of sweatshop competition.

Under the child-labor provisions of the act the employment of children under sixteen years is barred in any manufacturing or mining occupations, in operating or helping on motor vehicles, and in messenger service. Other employment will be permitted outside of school hours between 6 A.M. and 7 P.M. for not more than three hours on any school day and eight hours on any other day. The employment of minors sixteen and seventeen years in occupations declared hazardous for children of such ages is also prohibited.

Miss Katharine Lenroot, chief of the Children's Bureau which is the administrative agency for the child-labor provisions of the act, has estimated that about 50,000 children under sixteen years will be affected by the sixteen-year age minimum. The number of sixteen- and seventeen-year-old minors to be removed from hazardous occupations is not yet known. No occupation will be designated as hazardous until investigations and hearings have been held.

Enforcement of the child-labor provisions will be carried out through a system of employment certificates. The Children's Bureau has designated thirty-five states in which state certificates of age issued to employed minors will have the same force and effect as federal certificates. The only states for which plans for co-operation have not yet been completed are: Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Minnesota, Mississippi, Nebraska, Nevada, North Dakota, South Carolina, South Dakota, Texas, and Wyoming. In these states the Children's Bureau has provided that until January 23, 1939, a birth certificate or a record of baptism will be accepted.

The child-labor provisions of the act do not make it mandatory upon employers to have certificates of age for their minor employees, but provide that, if an employer has on file such a certificate, he is protected from unwitting violation of the child-labor provisions of the act.

There has been considerable speculation among newspaper publishers as to the effect of the child-labor provisions on newsboy sellers and carriers. Three weeks before the act went into effect, Elisha Hanson, general counsel for the American Newspaper Publishers' Association, stated that he would advise publishers to "get rid of" newsboys under fourteen years of age and obtain proof of age for all minor employees. Several newspapers, acting on this advice, have notified parents that boys under fourteen may no longer engage in newspaper delivery and have asked that birth certificates of boys above this age be filed with the newspaper. The A.N.P.A., however, has filed a brief claiming general exemption for newspapers from the wage and hour provisions of the act.

The administrator is authorized to provide for the employment of learners and apprentices at wages lower than those prescribed in the act. His rulings define an apprentice as a person, at least sixteen years of age, who has a written agreement with an employer, providing for not less than 4,000 hours of reasonably continuous employment, for participation in an appropriate schedule of work experience through employment, and not less than 140 hours a year of related supplemental instruction. The administrator has ruled that applications for learners "will be considered on the basis of the needs of the employees and employers in the industry as a whole rather than on the basis of needs of individual employees or employers." If it is determined after hearings that a lower wage-rate for learners is justified, the administrator will issue a special certificate "subject to such limitations as to time, number, proportion, and length of service as he determines to be proper."

An editorial in the same issue insists that this "Wage-Hour Law is not enough" to cover all the needs for control of child labor, and the point is so well taken that we also quote the editorial as a reminder that friends of an adequate policy affecting child labor cannot assume that the goal has been reached.

The Fair Labor Standards Act, generally known as the Wages and Hours Law, is now a reality. Its child-labor provisions, under the capable administration of the Federal Children's Bureau, will soon be in force throughout the country. This by no means warrants the conclusion that child labor is ended nor that further federal regulation is unnecessary. Only those industries which ship goods across state lines come under the child-labor ban of the Wages and Hours Act. A vast amount—in fact the largest percentage—of child labor is in intrastate occupations, which are not reached by the new legislation.

President Roosevelt has urged that there be no relaxation of effort in the child-labor field. The following is an excerpt from a letter written on June 13, the day before the Wages and Hours Act was passed, to U.S. Senator James E. Murray of Montana:

"I realize that with reference to the elimination of oppressive child labor our task will be only partially completed with the passage of this bill. This legislation will not prohibit oppressive employment of minors and children in industries which are purely local in character and have no relation to interstate commerce, as such employment is believed to be beyond the reach of federal authority. Such abuses will have to be dealt with either by the respective states or await the action of the federal government after the pending child-labor amendment to the Constitution, which would enlarge the power of the national government to legislate on this question, has been ratified.

"But until the elimination of oppressive child labor has been fully achieved, we must not relax our efforts."

[Signed] FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT

## WHO'S WHO FOR JANUARY

*The authors of articles* E. G. BLACKSTONE, associate professor of *in the current issue* commerce and education at the University of Southern California, is author of "Remodeling Your Commercial Department," one of a series of articles which, under the auspices of the National Council of Business Education, are to be published in leading general educational periodicals during 1938-39. VERA L. PEACOCK, head of the Department of Foreign Languages at Southern Illinois State Normal University, Carbondale, Illinois. MILTON HAHN, co-ordinator of vocational orientation in General College of the University of Minnesota. WILLIAM T. MEYER, associate professor of education at Adams State Teachers College, Alamosa, Colorado. GEORGE A. MOTTER, teacher of the social sciences at Central High School, Lima, Ohio. CALANTHE BRAZELTON, dean of girls at Tucson Senior High School, Tucson, Arizona. LEONARD V. KOOS, professor of secondary education at the University of Chicago.

*The writers of reviews* HAROLD H. PUNKE, professor of education *in the current issue* at Georgia State Woman's College, Valdosta, Georgia. P. B. JACOBSON, principal of the University High School, assistant professor of education, and assistant dean of the College at the University of Chicago. J. M. McCALLISTER, director of personnel service in the Department of Personnel Service and Registration, Herzl City Junior College, Chicago, Illinois. R. E. BLACKWELL, director of the Division of Information and Publicity at Western Reserve University. PAUL W. TERRY, professor of educational psychology at the University of Alabama. S. A. HAMRIN, associate professor of education at Northwestern University. LESLIE W. IRWIN, chairman of the Department of Health and Physical Education in the Laboratory Schools of the University of Chicago.

## REMODELING YOUR COMMERCIAL DEPARTMENT

E. G. BLACKSTONE  
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SOMETHING like two million high-school pupils are studying business subjects today. Is that number too many? Are these pupils being effectively trained for business careers by the courses which are given them, or are they following an outmoded plan which does not fit modern needs? Are the ancient and honorable subjects of typewriting, bookkeeping, and shorthand the best possible portals for entry into the present-day business world? Is there a possibility that academic pupils who have had little, if any, business education might profit from education in consumer business activities and economic problems? Should high-school commercial departments give these academic pupils a thought, or should they continue to center attention only on pupils majoring in commercial subjects?

Vocational education has at last come to be considered respectable and endowed with a certain odor of sanctity. The struggle was long, but it seems to have been won. Unfortunately, however, commercial education has come to be classified as primarily vocational education. It is still thought of as existing chiefly for the purpose of training boys and girls for initial business positions and possible job series of a promotional nature. Little consideration has been given to the possibility that all secondary-school pupils need education for common business activities met in home, school, and social situations, or to the possibility that all pupils need at least a minimum degree of intelligence about the major economic problems which face America today and which will be facing our graduates when they leave school to take their places in modern adult life. Yet forward-looking school administrators and the more alert business educators are giving thought to such possibilities. Two million commercial pupils is a stupendous number, and the job of training them effectively for business occupations is one worthy of the school's best attention.

Still larger is the problem of providing adequate consumer and economic citizenship education for these two millions, plus an additional four million academic pupils.

#### VOCATIONAL BUSINESS TRAINING

What types of education shall be provided for the two millions? There is abundant justification for providing vocational commercial work to enable boys and girls to earn their livings. It may fairly be assumed that for any socially acceptable type of business occupation as many pupils should be trained as are needed by the business world, but there is no justification whatever for training more persons for any occupation than can be placed, particularly when there are other business occupations for which an insufficient number are being trained. Yet excess thousands of pupils are annually trained in bookkeeping and stenography, and not nearly enough are trained for selling, general office work, office-machine manipulation, and small business operation. What is the reason? Is it that educators are unaware of the situation? Is it that they are misled by vague claims about the general values of the older subjects? Is it that they are unaware that businessmen would prefer trained salespeople if they were available? Or is it that they have thought very little about the whole matter?

Perhaps high schools have hesitated to offer the subjects in which there is a shortage of trained workers because of the difficulty of finding well-trained teachers and are passing on the blame to the colleges and universities which fail to train teachers in these subjects. History shows that every needed new subject has come into the schools accompanied by this same lack of trained instructors. All subjects have been developed, little by little, by experimentation on the part of untrained or meagerly trained teachers; the universities always lag in training teachers. They should not be blamed too much for this lag. They say, with justification, that not enough schools are offering the new subjects so that students trained in these subjects can get jobs; superintendents reply that they cannot find trained teachers. A truly vicious circle! The solution has always been for both school and university to start working on the problem. Let the high-school principal select an alert and capable

young teacher and tell him that next year he will be asked to start teaching one of these vitally needed subjects. Give him the year to brush up on it, encourage him to go to summer school to learn what he can about it, and then start him off. He may not do an outstanding job the first year, but he will learn an enormous amount about the subject. The second year his teaching will be better, and before long the subject will be going forward with vigor and effectiveness. If some such start is not made, if the vicious circle continues to operate, schools will never be able to provide the new training which progress requires.

The only adequate way to determine what commercial subjects of a vocational nature should be offered in a community is to make a study of the business jobs available in the community and the number of replacements needed annually—the turnover. Too much consideration should not be given to the migration of pupils; it does not help much to train an excess of stenographers, for instance, on the chance that they may move to another town where there are more such jobs. Probably an excess of stenographers is being trained in the town to which they go.

It should not be forgotten that vocational business education is concerned with training pupils, not only in the skills and the techniques which they need, but also in business principles and relationships, in personality traits, and in occupational intelligence, so that the graduates may be qualified to progress in a job series and not be sentenced permanently to their initial positions. Let all commercial pupils be required to secure training in commercial law, commercial geography, business organization, and similar background subjects, in addition to skills and techniques. Time and teachers can be found to do these things, possibly, if the excess classes are eliminated from the subjects in which the schools are training too many persons. Turn back to the academic departments the courses in business English, business mathematics, spelling, and penmanship, or eliminate entirely some of the traditional business subjects for which the job possibilities in the community provide no justification. The public will certainly provide the additional teachers, equipment, and finances which are needed if they are convinced of the job-training values provided by the additional outlay. Ameri-

can citizens have no inclination to curtail *essential* education if only they become convinced that it is essential.

#### CONSUMER BUSINESS EDUCATION

Before *any* provision is made for *vocational* business education, it is essential to provide that business education which is needed by *all* secondary-school pupils. One such element is consumer business education—training for the common business activities met by all persons outside their vocations. Ability to handle bank accounts, business papers, transportation and communication facilities, and an understanding of some elements of business law (from the consumer point of view) are perhaps fully as important as is appreciation of literature, or mathematics, or languages. Effective buying of goods and services, interpretation of advertising, and ability to select the proper types of insurance are perhaps even more important—so important, indeed, that they could readily be justified as part of the essential core curriculum which every pupil should be required to take; important enough, indeed, that they should be included in the core curriculums even of schools which have adopted the “progressive” idea, although some so-called “progressive” educators have not yet discovered these needs.

It would be ridiculous to suggest that consumer education be taught only by the commercial department; equally ridiculous would it be to assign consumer education wholly to the home-economics, the manual-arts, the science, or the social-science department. It has been suggested that consumer education have a place in the core curriculum of every grade, beginning with Grade I. It has been suggested, too, that every department which can contribute to consumer education do so. Here arises a difficulty. Suppose that the home-economics department is singularly adept at teaching the proper selection of foods and clothing and that all pupils who elect home economics secure very worth-while instruction. What about the pupils who do not elect home economics? Where shall they secure this vital information? Schools must eliminate the possibility that pupils may fail to secure useful training unless they elect particular subjects. Programs of studies must be administered in such a way that all pupils shall secure at least a minimum of essential

training in consumer education. It is the feeling of the writer that so much of consumer education properly falls within the province of business education that pupils may fairly be asked to take at least one semester of junior consumer business in the early years of the high school and another semester of senior consumer business training in the last year. The junior course, limited to simpler concepts which can be comprehended by immature and inexperienced pupils, must be offered in order that pupils who will drop out of school may not be prevented from securing it. The senior course, devoted to more complex and possibly more important concepts, should be offered to all pupils at a time when they are as mature and as experienced as they will be while they are still in high school. Theoretically, such training should be required of all persons during the first year after they are married, for that is when they will need it most; but, since the schools cannot hope to get hold of them then, training must be provided during the Senior high-school year. Consumer business education is perhaps just as important as academic training or vocational-job training and just as necessary for all secondary-school pupils. Let provision, then, be made for it first of all.

#### TRAINING IN ECONOMIC CITIZENSHIP

Training in economic citizenship is equally as important as academic training. A successful democracy is dependent on an intelligent electorate; should the electorate become too unintelligent, the democracy will fail. The major problems facing American voters today are frequently economic in nature—problems such as taxation, old-age security, balancing the budget, pump-priming, and national housing. How shall pupils be made intelligent about these questions? Surely not through economics courses of the old type, with the emphasis on systematic theory, principles, and laws which they can never hope to remember, much less apply to concrete situations. Rather, a reorganized instruction plan should be provided, in which a week or two is given to practical and, if possible, dispassionate discussion of the pros and cons of each of these disputed questions. It is not to be hoped, of course, that tax experts can be prepared in a single week or even in two weeks. Nevertheless, if in that length of time some minimum intelligence about this question or other

problems cannot be developed, our democracy is in a bad way indeed. The writer has confidence that such minimum intelligence can be developed and that such a course is more important than almost any other subject which might be offered—academic, cultural, consumer, or vocational. Surely every pupil might be required to take such training.

It is sometimes suggested that economic citizenship be taught in the social-science department. If the social-science teacher is qualified to handle the subject effectively or can learn to handle it effectively, that solution may be accepted. It is, however, a moot question whether the commercial teacher or the social-science teacher is the better equipped for such teaching. If the training of the social-science teacher is chiefly along the lines of history, civics, and politics, with a smattering of economics (as is often the case), he is perhaps less well trained for the job than is the commercial teacher who has been required to take courses in finance, economics, and business organization. Which department teaches economic citizenship does not matter; the important thing is that it be taught, and well taught.

#### TRAINING FOR PERSONAL USE

There is one other type of training which might be justified, namely, training for personal use. Much is being said today about every pupil's need for the ability to operate a typewriter to some extent. In fact, commercial departments everywhere are cluttered up with academic pupils who are taking typewriting for their own personal uses and who never expect to use the skill vocationally or even semi-vocationally. In the past these pupils have taken from one to four semesters to get what they want and have been required to write a lot of vocational business exercises which, although desirable for stenographers, are of little use in personal, nonvocational activities. Training in typewriting for personal use might well be justified if it could be taught in a single semester, or even two semesters, but four semesters seems to be more time than can be justified. Recently several textbooks in personal typewriting have come from the press—books which aim to omit purely vocational activities and which aim to develop, in a minimum of one semester, ability to use the

typewriter to a practical degree for home and school and college work. This training has proved to be popular and seems to be justifiable.

#### SUMMARY

Summarizing, then, it seems that the alert school administrator, whether his school be organized on the traditional departmental plan or whether it adopt the "core" curriculum or the "organismic" plan of the progressive educationists, will attempt to make provision in his school for the following types of business education: (1) consumer business education for all pupils—one semester in the junior high school area and one semester in the senior area; (2) economic citizenship for all pupils through a course in contemporary economic problems, taught by teachers of social science or by teachers of business, according to their training and abilities; (3) vocational education for business jobs according to the number of such jobs available, but not limited to two or three types of positions only, this training to include, in addition to essential skills and techniques, provision for training in occupational intelligence, essential business traits, and business-organization principles and relationships; (4) personal-use courses—typewriting and possibly bookkeeping or shorthand if sufficient justification for the latter can be assembled.

The chief difference, then, between the business education which should be offered in the small and that provided in the large high school will be, not in consumer education, which is as much needed in the small school as in the large; not in economic citizenship, which is similarly needed for both; but rather in the amount and the range of vocational and background courses, which must fit the number and the kinds of business positions possible for the pupils to secure.

## EFFECTIVE ENRICHMENT OF THE TEXTBOOK IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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### THE PROBLEMS OF ENRICHMENT

THE need for, and the advantages of, enriching a basic textbook along broadly cultural lines have finally won general acceptance among educators. The days when a firm barrier separated materials considered suitable for class from materials permitted in school clubs have vanished, and there are times when one even wonders whether the erstwhile club work is not now the main substance of the class. This general fusion of strictly academic procedure with the machinery and the interests of everyday life has tremendously vitalized both the teaching and the subject matter. It has also raised a number of problems:

1. How much class time is to be devoted to an enrichment program? Is the enrichment to be added to an already crowded syllabus? Or is the syllabus to be modified to allow time for supplementary materials?
2. Just where is the dividing line between materials effective for class work and those more desirable for club activities? Or is there no such division?
3. How can teachers be sure that the enrichment materials really serve the skills, the appreciations, and the understandings which constitute the objectives of their courses without becoming ends in themselves—ends which are laudable enough and pleasurable certainly but which possibly do not serve to increase appreciably the pupils' capacities? Enrichment materials, to be effective, must be within the grasp of the pupils. All enrichment materials do not enlarge that grasp as classroom instruction must enlarge it if intellectual growth is to result.

4. Which of the available materials is a teacher to choose? How are they to be introduced?

#### TIME FOR ENRICHMENT

The matter of time division probably cannot be settled definitely for all types of schools nor for all sections of the country. The existence of explicit courses or other requirements set up by state or city boards of education will be the most important factor in determining how great a role supplementary cultural materials may play in any field. For example, a state syllabus in French with definite requirements in grammar and in reading proficiency, backed up by state examinations stressing those points and including aural comprehension, will leave little class time for extraneous activities. In areas where such a system exists, club work becomes increasingly important, for it is there that many of the connections are made between the French language and the pupil's immediate environment and interest range and it is only there that visual aids, teaching equipment consisting of objects, and many devices of *realia* teaching can be used to any extent. On the other hand, in an area where there is no state syllabus in French, the teacher has great freedom in adjusting his course to the needs of the pupils and to the conditions of his particular school.

In a school where extra-curriculum activities are greatly stressed, there may not be room for extensive club work in foreign language. In the varied offering of athletic, musical, dramatic, and hobby activities, the rather restricted field of the foreign-language club may not attract a large number of pupils. In such a case enrichment material might well receive an important place in the classroom. Large schools usually have two well-defined groups in foreign-language classes: (1) pupils who need to develop skills in the language, that is, oral and written expression, aural comprehension, and reading ability, and (2) pupils who profit most from a study of foreign people—their customs, ideas, habits of thought, peculiar contributions to civilization, and potential influence on our own development. In an ideal school the first group either would spend the larger portion of the class hour developing skills, which would be applied, for the most part, in club activities, or would embark on a course of suffi-

cient length to permit the attainment of both these objectives in the class itself. The second group would confine its skill development to that of reading ability and would devote much class time to a study of the foreign culture and its relation to ours. Unfortunately, in all but the largest schools the two groups must be in one class, and the teacher must modify his work to suit the majority of the pupils—a procedure which truly satisfies none.

Another factor which influences the amount of class time devoted to enrichment materials is the extent to which the school library supplements the work. In schools where each pupil has definite library periods, much can be accomplished through displays and exhibits worked out with the librarian. Such co-operation greatly increases the effective presentation of *realia*. The librarian's knowledge of sources and his skill in selection and arrangement of materials mean much to the classroom teacher. The pupils who come in contact with these materials in the library meet them under different circumstances and through the influence of a different personality and so receive an added stimulation of interest.

#### ENRICHMENT IN CLASS AND THROUGH CLUB ACTIVITY

The division of materials into those suitable for class work and those more desirable for club activities depends on the amount of class time allotted to such materials. However, games requiring equipment more extensive than flash cards, activities consuming much time, and activities in which the learning value is relatively small ought to be relegated to club work. For example, question-and-answer games, spelling games, or scrambled words and sentences might well be a part of the class work; but games of authors and the like, cross-word puzzles, and anagrams require more time than can justifiably be given to them in the classroom. Formal chorus work, the study of native dances, soap-carving projects, and construction work are excellent fields for a language club, but they have no place in the ordinary high-school class period. On the other hand, photographs, maps, calendars, posters, foreign money, phonograph records, newspapers, magazines, and plays may all be splendid classroom materials if they are carefully adapted to the primary aim of the class.

## ENRICHMENT TO SERVE OBJECTIVES OF THE COURSE

It is desirable to keep enrichment materials subservient to the purposes of a class rather than to allow them to develop into ends in themselves. One of the first and the most important duties of a teacher is the establishment of the aim of his course and the adaptation of all materials and procedures to that aim. Accomplishment of this duty is not so simple as it sounds, but, if the primary purpose is always in the mind of the teacher, he will find it possible to adapt both textbook and other materials to it. Such a teacher will not introduce a foreign sound film simply to stimulate his pupils' interest. He will use the film to increase their aural comprehension of the language and to extend their acquaintance with foreign customs and people. He will prepare the class in advance by explanations of the subject presented; by a discussion of its geographic, historical, or economic aspects; and by a thorough study of the dialogue and sound accompaniment. Furthermore, he will use the film several times, stressing different elements each time, until the pupils are thoroughly familiar with the content of the picture and have comprehended fully the foreign idiom.

One factor which seems to need stressing is the necessity to *teach* enrichment materials. A teacher may cover the bulletin board with interesting materials, may change them frequently, and still fail to use that device effectively. In the first place, the bulletin board may too patently belong to the teacher. The pupils will inspect it more frequently if they contribute most of the exhibits and if they help to arrange them. To reach all the class, including the pupils who never offer contributions to the board, the teacher will need to ask questions about the exhibits or to base short compositions on them. If the exhibits have real informational value, as they should have, it is probably better to ask for three sentences on four or five articles than for a paragraph on one. Many of the most important social values of the foreign-language class can be furthered by the use of the bulletin board. For example, teachers hope that their pupils will learn to understand and admire the great intensity of French intellectual life and its real importance to the French people. News photographs dealing with state funerals for writers and scholars,

with the French Academy, and occasionally with anniversary celebrations or statues provide opportunities to draw the pupils' attention to the role in French public life played by the great intellectuals.

Ordinarily, enrichment material cannot be introduced without first establishing some natural connection with the pupils' lives. For example, at Southern Illinois State Normal University several native French persons have at times talked to student groups. From these talks arose interests in various aspects of French cultural development which the teachers were able to foster by use of maps, books, newspapers, and other *realia*. The original connections, however, were made first. Two of the speakers were musicians who had captured the student enthusiasm in their concerts. Frequently such a turn of events is wholly out of the teacher's control, but he can seize one when it happens and, with the *realia* which he ought to have constantly on hand, foster the interests aroused. Radio programs may kindle interest in a particular subject. Maude Adams' broadcast of *Chantecler* inspired a number of students to read the play, and a second-year reading class became very excited when part of *Le Juif polonais*, which they were studying at the time, came unexpectedly on a radio program one evening. The student who discovered it called the teacher and the other members of the class, and the next day the class discussed it thoroughly and finished the book with renewed interest. Commercial films often stimulate pupils' pride in their ability to understand foreign phrases and engender a new eagerness to learn more about a country. "The Story of Louis Pasteur," "The Life of Emile Zola," "Charlie Chan at Monte Carlo," "Seventh Heaven," and "Tovarich" all brought eager inquiries to class. Walt Disney films led to fables in general and then to those of La Fontaine. News stories, especially those with a romantic touch or the appeal of adventure, are of great interest to pupils. The story of the Windsors found its parallel in that of Bérénice, and never did a class study Racine so eagerly as did that year's students. News stories of Devil's Island often provide a chance to talk over the Dreyfus case. Any such lead will go farther than the sudden inspiration of talking about French colonial possessions some bright morning.

## SELECTION AND INTRODUCTION OF MATERIALS

Just which enrichment materials are to be chosen for any given class and how they are to be introduced are again matters that cannot be established definitely for all situations. One basic rule, however, that might well be followed is to choose materials which fit in with the textbook and the classroom procedure and to introduce these as naturally as possible. Culture cannot be crammed down pupils' throats. When, however, a lesson in the book mentions the rivers of France, those rivers can be located on a map, the regions through which they flow can be described, pictures and photographs of the cities along their banks can be shown—in short, any sparks of interest that may be noted in the class can be developed. When numbers and dates are being studied, the teacher can use French calendars, ask questions each day regarding the date, and work in a great deal of information about anniversaries, holidays, and the like. Christmas, Easter, and May Day are fine occasions for learning simple songs, studying foreign holiday customs, and developing little plays or parties illustrating those customs.

Some textbooks lend themselves to illustration by supplementary material much better than others. If the reading lessons deal with foreign customs, geography, history, social conditions, or artistic developments, it is relatively easy to introduce maps, postal cards, travel literature, and magazine articles. Teachers who use older textbooks in grammar, often extremely bare of cultural references and with few points on which to hang such information, still can bring in the materials connected with the seasons of the year, holidays, foreign monetary systems, and references to foreign developments as they appear in the newspapers, magazines, and newsreels. Those things are available to every classroom and can be developed amazingly if the attempt is made.

It is almost always possible to modify somewhat the appearance of a classroom in order to create a foreign atmosphere. Pictures, maps, a flag, proverbs, greetings, or verses of songs written on the blackboard, and displays on a bulletin board are all readily available with but little effort. These things should be used occasionally in the lesson development if they are to contribute their full value to

the pupils. It is just as easy, and far more practical, to ask for the colors of the French flag as it is to teach the position of adjectives of color by reference to "a little white house" or "a little red hen." The eternal "where is" question of the first-year class might well end once in a while in Paris or Marseilles instead of at the door or the window, provided that a map and a pointer are within reach.

Another teaching aid which requires little equipment and which can be introduced naturally is the singing of folk songs. The vocabulary of many of these songs is amazingly simple, and the repetition involved can be utilized as a pronunciation drill. These songs are frequently the accompaniment of dances or lend themselves to dramatizations which may be developed in language clubs. Records of these folk songs and of other foreign music provide an excellent variation if time is available. However, records are useful only if the class is prepared in advance to understand them and if they are used frequently enough to become familiar. A high-school pupil can rarely understand much of a foreign record unless he knows what is being said.

Since the radio has brought opera to everybody, it would seem the duty of the foreign-language class to increase the enjoyment and the understanding of operas by some study of their stories and music. Much of this will fall to the language club and will depend on the possibility of securing records and librettos and on the interest and the enthusiasm of the teacher. The student of French or German will enjoy *Faust* or *Tristan and Isolde* far more if he knows the story, is familiar with the main choruses and arias, and can understand at least part of the words. Some schools have been able to work out definite programs of instruction in foreign music through the co-operation of the music department and the foreign-language department. Every time other departments or individuals consent to work with the language teacher in his enrichment program, the effectiveness of that program becomes tremendously increased. The pupils gain through contact with these other teachers and profit from their specialized knowledge and skills, and the teachers gain immensely in inspiration and encouragement.

Radio programs can occasionally be effectively used, but for most classes they will remain an extra-curriculum pleasure. They some-

times fit nicely into club work, and they ought to be so used when possible, as ought every other aspect of modern life which has a real and a natural connection with academic material.

#### OBTAINING THE MATERIALS FOR ENRICHMENT

Fortunately most of the teaching aids which have been mentioned can be obtained at little or no cost. Larger and more expensive devices are often desirable but for many schools impossible. Many projection and sound machines are so poor as to render films ineffective. The pupils, accustomed to the highly finished performance of commercial films, are so annoyed or amused by the inferior production of much educational equipment that they profit little by it. Sixteen-millimeter foreign films are often dark and jerky, and the sound equipment may blur the speech so that it is incomprehensible. In cases where several communities can unite to provide thirty-five-millimeter equipment, better results can be obtained. Then old commercial films of definite educational value may be purchased and used frequently enough to be effective. Occasionally school groups can persuade the local theater to show special pictures at odd hours. For example, the Carbondale theater gave a special student showing of "The River" at eleven-thirty one morning and charged an admission fee of only five cents. Local theaters can sometimes be rented outright for an afternoon or an evening. That, of course, is an expensive procedure and would probably require the backing of several groups.

## THE STAFF CLINIC IN THE PUPIL- PERSONNEL PROGRAM

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**T**HE occasion was the end of the last of nine seminar meetings on student-personnel work. The instructor was of the best. The teacher was outstanding in a large school system. "It has been interesting," she said, "but how *do* you do guidance?"

Oral instruction, even under the best instructors, has limitations beyond which the student-personnel program must go if understanding and intelligent co-operation are to be obtained from faculty members in secondary schools. It is all very well to make the statement that the teacher occupies the front-line trenches in meeting pupils' problems; placing the proper weapons of understanding in the hands of willing but untrained persons is a step which, if it does not precede participation in the program, should at least be contemporary with participation.

The staff clinic, properly conducted, should aid materially in training teachers to take their place in the guidance program whether this program be of the clinical or the traditional mold. What are the objectives of this type of faculty instruction? How may these objectives be met? How is the clinic conducted?<sup>1</sup> These and similar questions may find a partial answer in this article.

### PURPOSES OF STAFF CLINICS

1. The staff clinic should be a demonstration of method. Uninformed teachers appear to feel that student-personnel work can be learned as a series of sequential steps which the initiated follow. The staff clinic clearly shows the falseness of this position by emphasizing the related data which are required before possible solutions can be found for distributive and adjustive problems of pupils. The opportunity to deal with the problems of familiar boys and girls

<sup>1</sup> The staff clinic was extensively used by E. G. Williamson while director of the University Testing Bureau of the University of Minnesota.

offers splendid training possibilities. One cannot attend a well-run staff clinic without absorbing something of the philosophy and the method which are followed.

2. The staff clinic is usable as an administrative tool for the instruction of home-room and classroom teachers. Lack of time or active interest may prevent teachers from taking formal graduate work in order to acquire adequate backgrounds in guidance. The clinic is an ideal instrument for acquainting teachers with the tools and the techniques used in meeting pupils' problems. Opportunity is afforded to exhibit measuring instruments and to discuss current guidance literature and training possibilities. Tactful use of these meetings will orient large segments of the teaching body to an individualized approach to pupils.

3. The staff clinic can clarify faculty thinking with regard to common types of problems which face individual pupils. One has but to attend a discussion group of teachers taking an elementary course in guidance to discover wide divergence of opinion on how comparatively uncomplicated cases should be treated. In one such class fourteen treatments of a single case were vehemently urged by the teacher counselors. In contrast are the meetings in a school in which consistent use has been made of the staff clinic. An equally large group of teachers and counselors starts with two or three alternatives, and little difficulty is encountered in arriving on common ground. Follow-up in this school indicates that a goodly number of cases are resulting in satisfactory adjustments by pupils.

4. The staff clinic is an aid to uniform analysis and diagnosis of case data. Research findings of the school clinic can be made understandable to the faculty. The school marking system, if thoroughly understood in its relation to measurement, may be improved. Information concerning educational and vocational opportunities in the community can be disseminated through the staff clinic. With up-to-date information the teacher can better analyze the factors bearing on pupil adjustment. Diagnoses of problems by teachers will be more valid if made with full understanding of material usually at the disposal only of trained guidance workers. Perfect uniformity cannot be expected, but the clinic will have proved its worth if it can only lessen the personal bias of individual teachers.

5. The staff clinic should serve the purpose of calling attention to the lack of school facilities for meeting unusual problems. Much damage is done by the assumption of the teacher or the counselor that he should have a solution for every problem. The clinic can show that the school guidance program has definite limits in its ability to diagnose and treat problems. A faculty should be trained not only to recognize its limitations but also to operate within the boundaries indicated.

6. Since both school and community touch the life of the pupil, the staff clinic should make clear the place of the schools in the community. Where possible, pupils' problems should be handled by school agencies. If limitations of the school program make it necessary that a pupil be referred to a community agency, treatment should be on a co-operative and a co-ordinated basis. Teachers should learn that a free exchange of information may benefit the pupil and that this exchange will prevent much useless duplication of effort. There is a tendency to view school happenings as apart from the life of the community. The staff clinic can better this viewpoint.

The term "staff clinic" has been used with the assumption that a goodly proportion of schools have guidance programs. In schools where guidance services have not been co-ordinated into a formal program, the faculty meeting can be used to the same end. Even in schools where there is an organized guidance department, it may be advisable to devote some faculty meetings to subjects which supplement the staff clinics.

#### DESIRABLE ARRANGEMENTS FOR STAFF CLINICS

The staff clinic should have a definite calendar throughout the school year. Meetings are best held in the same place every time. The school guidance clinic or the test room offers a good location. If the program is clinical in nature, a test profile or psychograph should be painted on the blackboard with white paint. The psychograph is necessary for presenting data obtained from measurement. The necessary data are the name of the test, the name of the tester, the date of administration, the percentile or standard score, the group norm with which comparison is made, and a mark to show the posi-

tion on the scale which the score represents. Where only the general type of counseling is used and test data are not available, the profile is not needed.

Meetings are usually held in the afternoon at the close of the school day. Interest seems to be best maintained if two clinics are held each month. Weekly meetings may become a chore, and monthly meetings will allow interest to lag. Except when unusual conditions exist, the meeting will not last for more than an hour. Two cases can be handled in this time if there has been sufficient preparation.

Compulsory attendance for teachers would defeat the purpose of the clinic. The regular guidance staff, including the dean of girls, the nurse, the counselors, and the director, should be there, but home-room teachers and classroom teachers should not be forced to attend. A statement should be sent to these persons that the case of one of their pupils is to be discussed and that their presence would help in reaching a proper decision. Since visitors may be present, it is not advisable to use the names of the pupils being discussed. The teachers should be informed before the clinic begins.

The meeting should not be too formal. At times it may be advisable to serve light refreshments at the start. The person in charge of the guidance program usually acts as the leader, but counselors and teachers should frequently be urged to present cases on which they are working.

The measurement information for the first case may be placed on the board before the beginning of the meeting. While the case history for the second case is being read, one of the staff can clean the board and place the second set of data on the profile. A definite outline of procedure will prevent the discussion from straying too far from the business in hand. One effective method of presenting a case is to give only the case history or only the measurement data, the dependence of one on the other being thus clearly shown. No matter what methods of presentation are used, the meeting should not be allowed to deteriorate into a lecture or a dialogue. The greatest value lies in a directed but open interchange of ideas.

Much can be added to the meeting if some of the cases are discussed by a representative from each of several community agencies.

Care should be taken to select cases which are of interest because of some interesting or unusual angle. Counselors from other schools, which serve a different area of the district, will be able to illustrate the need for having a guidance program that fits the circumstances peculiar to each school. At all times the leader should avoid any appearance of the "Jehovah" complex.

#### BENEFITS OF STAFF CLINICS

A simple program, somewhat as outlined, will result in the following benefits to the school guidance program: (1) The student-personnel program will be better integrated into the school pattern through the sympathetic understanding of the teaching body. (2) Understanding of the school's responsibility to the community should result in the acceptance of greater guidance responsibilities on the part of the teachers. (3) Over a period of time the staff clinics should result in a more efficient counseling service. Not only will there be direct results, but the incentive to obtain professional training may be increased. (4) Because of the existence of an alert and informed group of "guidance-minded" teachers, the total number of pupils' problems may be decreased, and many serious problems may be avoided through early diagnosis and preventive treatment.

## REORGANIZATION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF GERMANY

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BEGINNING almost immediately after the Nazi party had gained control in 1933, the National Ministry of Education in Germany announced a series of decrees designed to pave the way for a complete internal and external reorganization and simplification of the numerous types of secondary schools. A preliminary decree, issued at Easter time in 1937, indicated that two types were contemplated: a chief type (*Hauptform*) and a subsidiary type (*Nebenform*), the latter retaining the characteristics of the old classical *Gymnasium* and the former emphasizing modern foreign languages and science. Bernhard Rust, the minister of education, in a decree published on February 5, 1938, in *Deutsche Wissenschaft Erziehung und Volksbildung*, the official organ of the National and Prussian Ministry of Education, sets forth in detail the form, work, and goal of this reorganized secondary school and exhorts the teaching profession to accept the challenge and the responsibility for transforming this division of the school system into an instrument which will render service to a select part of the German youth in accordance with the National Socialist ideals.

The provisions of this decree are mandatory for the school year 1938-39. The following six points are specifically outlined.

1. Because of certain population policies, the traditional nine-year secondary school has been shortened to eight years, but the standards of achievement are in no way to be lowered. The entire work is to be directed toward college entrance, and pupils who are incapable of carrying on the work or have evident weaknesses of will or character are to be kept out of the secondary school.

2. The standard is to be a school offering a complete eight-year program, to which the pupil transfers at the end of the fourth or the

sixth year of the *Volksschule*. However, to assure capable rural youth access to higher education, partial schools are permitted. Such schools, offering the first two, three, or four years of secondary work, will be intimately connected with a nearby complete school. It is recommended that for girls the partial schools should have six years, the last containing a home-arts curriculum and thus constituting a finishing school.

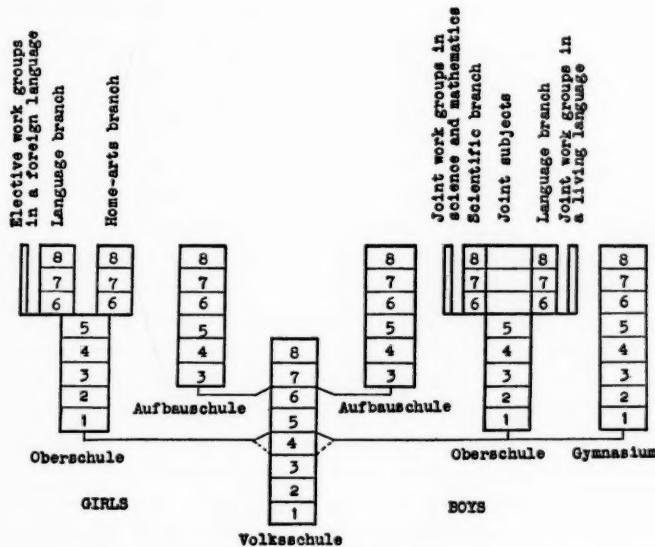


FIG. 1.—Organization of German secondary schools as outlined by decree of February 5, 1938.

3. Coeducation is strongly discouraged as contrary to the National Socialist philosophy. The new home-arts form of the high school (*Oberschule*) for girls is designed to prepare the German girl for her position as a woman and mother in family, vocational, and social life. Only in exceptional cases may girls attend boys' schools, and boys may never be admitted to girls' schools. When girls attend boys' schools, their instruction is patterned after that of the girls' school. In exceptional cases, and then only with the consent of the provincial superintendent or board of education, girls may transfer

into the sixth to eighth class of the boys' school. Girls may attend the *Gymnasium* only upon the expressed permission of the national minister. In this case no special instructional arrangements are made for them.

TABLE 1

CURRICULUM OF GERMAN OBERSCHULE FOR BOYS WITH (a) NATURAL SCIENCE-MATHEMATICS BRANCH AND (b) LANGUAGE BRANCH

SUBJECT	WEEKLY NUMBER OF HOURS IN YEAR								Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
1. Physical education.....	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	40
2. Deutschkunde:									
German.....	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	33
History.....	1	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	22
Geography.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
Art.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
Music.....	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	14
3. Natural science and mathematics:									
Biology.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
Chemistry and Physics }					3	a) 2*	a) 2	a) 2	a) 17†
Arithmetic and mathematics.....					2	b) 2*	b) 2	b) 2	b) 11‡
4. Foreign languages:									
English.....	6	6	4	4	4	a) 2*	a) 2	a) 2	a) 30†
Latin.....			4	4	4	b) 4*	b) 4	b) 4	b) 36†
						a) 2*	a) 2	a) 2	a) 18‡
						b) 4*	b) 4	b) 4	b) 24‡
5. Work groups:									
Science-mathematics.....						a) 3	a) 3	a) 3	a) 9
Foreign languages.....						b) 3	b) 3	b) 3	b) 9
6. Religion.....	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	12
Total.....	31	32	34	34	34	a) 36 b) 36	a) 36 b) 36	a) 36 b) 36	a) 273 b) 273

\* For the period of transition the sixth year is divided only in the work groups. For chemistry and physics, mathematics, and the foreign languages, these classes meet for three hours in both branches.

† The total during the transition period is one hour less for figures followed by a dagger.

‡ The total during the transition period is one hour more for figures followed by a double dagger.

4. In order that it may fit the capacities and the vocational interests of the youth, the work in the sixth to the eighth years of the *Oberschule* for boys has been divided into two separate branches, one of which emphasizes natural sciences and mathematics and the other languages. However, such subjects as biology, physical edu-

TABLE 2  
CURRICULUM FOR THE GERMAN GYMNASIUM

SUBJECT	WEEKLY NUMBER OF HOURS IN YEAR								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Total
1. Physical education.....	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	40
2. <i>Deutschkunde</i> :									
German.....	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	33
History.....	1	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	22
Geography.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
Art.....	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	12
Music.....	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	14
3. Natural science and mathematics:									
Biology.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
Chemistry (or physics in Year 4).....				2	2	2	2	2	10
Arithmetic and mathematics.....	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	27
4. Foreign languages:									
Latin.....	6	6	4	4	4	4	4	3	35
Greek.....			5	5	5	5	5	5	30
English.....					3	3	3	3	12
5. Religion.....	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	12
Total.....	31	32	35	35	36	37	37	36	279

tion, and the group called *Deutschkunde* (study of Germany and things German) will be taken together by the two divisions as a means of fostering a spirit of unity. Closely allied with each division is a joint work group for the three upper classes. Until the middle-school system has fully developed, a division will not take place in the sixth year except in these work groups. These work groups are compulsory for all, except that a principal may exclude a pupil when special circumstances warrant.

The courses of study for the joint work groups in natural science and mathematics are to reflect their contribution to the national political task. In the work groups for foreign languages the Romance languages are to have a preferred place. Inasmuch as these groups

TABLE 3  
CURRICULUM OF GERMAN OBERSCHULE OF LANGUAGE TYPE FOR GIRLS

SUBJECT	WEEKLY NUMBER OF HOURS IN YEAR								Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
1. Physical education..	5	5	5	5	5	4	4	4	37
2. <i>Deutschkunde:</i>									
German.....	5	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	34
History.....	1	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	21
Geography.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
Art or Handcrafts.....	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	29
Music.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
3. Natural science and mathematics:									
Biology.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
Chemistry (or phys- ics in Year 4).....				2	3	3	3	3	14
Arithmetic and mathematics.....	4	4	4	3	3	2	2	2	24
4. Foreign languages:									
English.....	5	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	30
One living foreign language and.....						4 3*	3 4*	4 3*	11 10*
Latin.....									
5. Religion.....	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	12
Total.....	32	32	32	33	33	(33 (+3))	(32 (+4))	(33 (+3))	260 (+10)

\* Number of hours given to second elective language. One language (other than English) is compulsory.

will be composed of advanced students with a strong background in Latin and since experience with such groups is limited, no outline of aims nor detailed course of study has been set up. However, all principals and teachers are urged to devote special attention to this project.

This division of the seventh and the eighth year of the *Oberschule*

for boys may be disregarded only under the most pressing circumstances.

5. For the *Gymnasium* the following regulations are of special significance. Greek will be taken from the third to the eighth year. The study of English as the third foreign language will begin with the fifth year. During the sixth to eighth years the pupils are to be

TABLE 4  
CURRICULUM OF GERMAN OBERSCHULE OF HOME-ARTS TYPE FOR GIRLS

SUBJECT	WEEKLY NUMBER OF HOURS IN YEAR								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Total
1. Physical education.....	5	5	5	5	5	2	2	2	31
2. Deutschkunde:									
German.....	5	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	34
History.....	1	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	21
Geography.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
Art.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
Music.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
3. Natural science and mathematics:									
Biology.....	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
Chemistry (or physics in Year 4).....				2	3	3	3	3	14
Arithmetic and mathematics.....	4	4	4	3	3	2	2	2	24
4. Woman's work—Home-making, cooking, house and garden work*.....						6	6	6	18
Handcrafts.....	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	19
Health†.....						1	1	1	3
Nursing activities†.....						1	1	1	3
Practical work in a nursery, kindergarten, or family.....						‡	‡	‡	....
5. Foreign languages:									
English.....	5	4	4	4	4	2	2	2	27
6. Religion.....	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	12
Total.....	32	32	32	33	33	36	36	36	270

\* In the winter, projects take the place of garden work.

† The activities of the eighth year will be integrated with the study of health and nursing or with biology.

‡ Exact hours are not indicated because the work is done in a continuous period of four weeks. During this time the regular classes are omitted.

given an opportunity to study French on a more or less extra-curriculum basis.

6. No new courses of study for religion are indicated, but attention is called to the fact that those things shall be omitted which are not in harmony with the unitary character of National Socialist education.

Special provisions for a period of transition have been outlined, but these administrative details are of minor significance for the American student of education.

Figure 1, adapted from the same issue of *Deutsche Wissenschaft Erziehung und Volksbildung*, shows in graphical form how the revamped secondary schools are related to each other and to the *Volksschule*. Both the *Oberschule* and the *Gymnasium* for boys prepare for university entrance provided the graduates pass the required examinations; meet the mental, physical, moral, and political standards; and have spent the compulsory period in a labor camp. Since the *Oberschule* is the chief type of secondary school, the *Gymnasium* may exist in a community only as a second institution. University education for girls, though not prohibited, is strongly discouraged.

Though this article is not primarily concerned with the curriculum, a brief summary of the curriculums of the four main types of schools should add materially to an understanding of the reorganized secondary schools. Table 1 shows the curriculum of the divided *Oberschule* for boys; Table 2, that of the *Gymnasium*; Table 3, that of a language type of *Oberschule* for girls; and Table 4, that of a home-arts type of *Oberschule* for girls. A careful scrutiny of these tables shows how the curriculums have been planned with a definite aim toward educating German young men and women as members of the National Socialist society.

## TEACHER ASSIGNMENTS VERSUS WORKBOOK ASSIGNMENTS

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### INTRODUCTION

THE almost total absence of research on the value of the workbook encouraged the writer in his desire to investigate experimentally one phase of this problem in his own eighth-grade classes in social science.

In 1931 Wesley<sup>1</sup> issued a rather clear-cut challenge to students of education to investigate scientifically the problem of the value of any and all workbooks. This challenge has, apparently, been almost entirely ignored; the writer was able to find the published report of but one controlled experiment to determine the value of the social-science workbook. Cressman<sup>2</sup> performed an experiment to compare the values of the workbook method and the oral-instruction method in teaching citizenship and conduct to groups of seventh-grade pupils. He found that the workbook method was slightly but not significantly superior to the oral-instruction method, and he concluded that the results indicated no significant advantage of the workbook over oral instruction. Nelson<sup>3</sup> conducted an experiment from which he concluded that, for the teaching of civics to pupils in Grades XI and XII, the workbook has no significant advantage over an oral-instruction method. The results of these two experiments have stood alone to refute the testimony of many enthusiasts

<sup>1</sup> Edgar Bruce Wesley, "Workbooks in the Social Studies," *Historical Outlook*, XXII (April, 1931), 151-53.

<sup>2</sup> Elmer W. Cressman, "Workbook versus Oral Instruction," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, VII (December, 1933), 250-53.

<sup>3</sup> Clayton L. Nelson, "The Effectiveness of a Specific Workbook in Learning American Government." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Iowa, 1932. Cited by R. M. Tryon, "The Development and Appraisal of Workbooks in the Social Sciences," *School Review*, XLVI (January, 1938), 17-31.

tic indorsements of the workbook—indorsements necessarily based on opinion and belief.

#### THE PROBLEM

All teachers are acquainted with the wide variety of workbooks available in all fields of teaching. The complexity of claims and purposes advanced for many of these workbooks covers a large range. The workbook in social science varies likewise in its claims and purposes. Since one of the most frequently advanced claims for the workbook in social science is that it provides better facilities for fixing facts, the writer purposely limited his problem to consideration of factual learning. The purpose of the experiment was to find an answer to the question: What are the comparative values, for the learning of factual matter in social science, of the workbook method and the traditional method of recitation and discussion directed by the teacher? Phrased somewhat differently: Do pupils learn more factual matter in social science when they carry out workbook instructions or when they carry out instructions prescribed by the teacher? It was felt that, if results were to show the superiority of the workbook, then the chief argument for using it would be upheld; it would achieve a valid *raison d'être*. If, on the other hand, results were to show that the workbook method does not effect greater achievement in factual learning, then a great part of the workbook's prestige would be lost. The experiments of Cressman and Nelson were concerned with some of the broader objectives of social science; the present experiment was concerned only with factual learning.

#### THE METHODS

The workbook method, as followed in this experiment, consisted in reading the textbook, answering the questions in the accompanying problem in the workbook, correcting the errors made in answering these workbook questions, and discussing the topics proposed in the workbook. This method may not be the best adaptation of the workbook; it seemed to be a fair sample of the procedure used by other teachers in the school.

The recitation and discussion method involved reading the textbook; writing answers to notebook questions originated by the

teacher, for which the pupil used the textbook as reference and for which he wrote limited essay-type answers (that is, only a limited number of lines on a page of the notebook could be used for each answer); and the reading of answers from notebooks by various members of the class and discussion by the entire class of the merits of these answers. This method left a balance of time at the disposal of the teacher, which was used for the following activities, the time devoted to each being left to the discretion of the teacher: five oral reviews, conducted like the old-fashioned spelling bee, in which pupils were spelled down on factual questions (true-and-false and direct questions); a weekly quiz over the material covered during the week; the making of four maps; and presentation to the class of reports of stories and magazine articles read, personal experiences, etc.

#### EQUATING AND HANDLING THE PUPILS

The equating of the subjects of the experiment (eighth-grade boys and girls in a city school) began with a virtual equating by chance. The principal's office made up the membership of the eighth-grade classes in social science during the summer before the experiment. Since no method of homogeneous grouping was followed and since chance was the only factor deciding the assignment to class groups (except, of course, conflicts in the time of recitation), the classes used for the control and the experimental groups were thus equated by one standard. The next standard to be applied for equating the pupils was the intelligence quotient. From the records of the Testing Bureau of the city school system, the writer obtained the intelligence quotient of each pupil. These intelligence quotients had been determined by a trained supervisor by the use of the Illinois General Intelligence Scale. Two classes of thirty-five pupils each, selected by the school office, constituted the control group. In this control group of seventy pupils a rather wide range of intelligence quotients was found, from 84 to 133. These intelligence quotients were arranged in order of superiority, 133 standing first. Equivalent intelligence quotients in the remaining two classes (to be the experimental group) were sought to match the intelligence quotients of the control group. It was possible in all but seven cases to find a

pupil in the experimental group whose intelligence quotient matched that of a member of the control group. In these seven cases, pupils of the desired intelligence quotients were drawn from other eighth-grade social-science classes and substituted for the non-matching pupils. This procedure gave an experimental group with a range in intelligence quotients from 84 to 134.

This method of equating and selecting the groups made it possible to use chance equating as well as intelligence quotient. Since it is generally recognized that the intelligence quotient is far from an

TABLE 1  
DATA SHOWING SIMILARITY OF CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL  
GROUPS AND ACHIEVEMENT ON SOCIAL-STUDIES TEST

	Control Group	Experimental Group
Number of pupils:		
Boys.....	34	36
Girls.....	36	34
Mean intelligence quotient.....	106.2	105.6
Mean chronological age (in years and months).....	13.7	13.8
Mean achievement in previous year*.....	80.1	79.7
Mean score on social-studies test:		
Form A (pretest).....	60.97	60.46
Form B.....	80.68	79.57
Gain.....	19.71	19.11

\* Measured by percentage marks given by teachers in English, social science, and mathematics.

infallible measure, the pairing by intelligence quotient was not exact. For example, there was no hesitation in pairing an intelligence quotient of 134 in the experimental group with an intelligence quotient of 133 in the control group. The problem of principal interest being the effect of the two teaching methods on groups of pupils, it was desired to obtain two groups equal by average, not necessarily equal individually. The data in Table 1 indicate this average equality in composition of the groups, intelligence quotient, chronological age, and mean academic achievement in the preceding year. The pupils in the two groups came from homes in the same sort of residential district, an approximate equality in home environmental

influences being thus indicated. General school factors, such as supervision, were similar for all pupils. Extra-school factors were equal for the two groups, since they contained equal numbers of boys and girls who were members of some club, music chorus, athletic team, or other extra activity.

The necessity of reversing the groups to equate the factor of teacher difference was avoided in the following manner. Two teachers, the writer and one other, taught half of both groups. The writer taught a class using the workbook method and a class using the method of discussion and recitation. The second teacher likewise taught one class from both groups. Differences in teaching zeal and personality were thus fairly typical and were the same for the two halves of each group. Textbooks and workbooks were kept in the classroom at all times in an effort to assure equality in the amount of time spent in preparation. Make-up work was required of any pupil who had been absent from school. This make-up work was probably more easily done in the workbook group.

The group using the workbook method was designated the experimental group; the group using the teacher-directed plan of recitation and discussion was designated the control group. The workbook activity was the variable factor; other factors were held as nearly static as possible. The laboratory conditions for the experiment thus consisted of a control and an experimental group, each composed of two classes of thirty-five pupils paired individually by intelligence quotient and matched as groups in chronological age, sex, previous achievement, home environment, and general and extra-school factors.

#### TESTING THE RESULTS

The testing measures used were the Social Studies Achievement Tests To Accompany "A History of American Civilization," validated by recognized authorities and based on the course taught in the writer's experiment. Form A of the test was administered on the first day of the school semester to all members of both groups, and the tests were scored by the key accompanying them. Then, for the duration of the semester of ninety school days, the two teaching methods were applied. On the last day of the semester Form B

of the tests was administered and scored by the key. Calculations were then made to determine the means of the two groups on Forms A and B of the tests, the gain made by each pupil on Form B over his score on Form A, the difference in means on the final form of the tests, and the significance of this difference.

The mean scores in Table 1 show a difference of 1.11 on Form B in favor of the control group. The standard error of this difference was 1.01 and the critical ratio 0.58. This critical ratio indicates that there were 72 chances in 100 that the difference was significant. While this difference is not sufficiently large to be conclusive, it indicates that the slight difference found was in favor of the teacher-directed exercises.

When a similar calculation was made to compare the achievements of the more intelligent halves (measured by intelligence quotients) of the control and the experimental groups, it was found that the difference in means was 3.38, in favor of the control group, with a standard error of 2.33. The critical ratio was 1.45, indicating that the difference had 93 chances in 100 of being a significant difference.

Calculation of the gain made by each pupil on Form B of the achievement tests revealed that the pupils of the two groups made practically identical gains. Gains in the workbook group ranged from -8 (a loss of 8 points) to 41, or a range of 49. Gains in the control group extended from 3 to 44, with a range of 41. The average of the gains made by the experimental group was 19.07; the average of the gains made by the control group was 19.82. There was but one case of negative gain, and that in the workbook group.

#### CONCLUSIONS

Generally speaking, the data of this experiment, when interpreted in the light of the laws of statistics, justify the conclusion that neither of the two methods of teaching social science—the workbook method and the teacher-directed method of recitation and discussion—is notably superior to the other for fixing factual matter of the type tested. It is to be concluded that the workbook fails, on the basis of the data derived from this experiment, to live up to its principal claim to superiority in objectivity. The negligible difference found, both in the means of the two groups on the final form

of the achievement tests and in the average of the individual gains made by members of both groups, was in favor of the teacher-directed method. This negligible difference in achievement of representative groups containing pupils of low, average, and high intelligence became somewhat more significant when the achievements of pupils of better than average intelligence were compared. While the results do not provide overwhelming evidence of the superiority of the teacher-directed method, neither do they indicate that the workbook is superior to other teaching tools which social-science teachers had been using for many years before the appearance of workbooks.

The principle to be formulated from the data of the experiment is: For the teaching of factual matter in the social sciences, there is no significant difference between the effects of the workbook method and the teacher-directed method of notebook work and class discussion and recitation. For normal groups the slight difference in favor of the teacher-directed method approached significance, while for groups of superior pupils this difference approached more nearly to significance, again in favor of the teacher-directed method.

## EXCESSIVE ABSENCE OF HIGH-SCHOOL GIRLS

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### CAUSES OF ABSENCE

IN THIS investigation case studies were made of high-school girls whose absences exceeded the average number of absences for the girls of the school. The purpose was to reduce excessive absences in cases of particular girls by discovering the causes peculiar to each case.

The study covered a period of four semesters. Absences were tabulated for each girl for each of the four semesters separately, and the average number of absences for the girls of the school for each of the four semesters was determined. Case studies were made of 305 girls whose absences exceeded the average number of absences for the girls of the school. These case studies were classified in five groups on the basis of similarity in causes of absence. The causes and the percentage of the cases for each cause were as follows: illness, 59.3 per cent; causes requiring individual adjustment, 19.3 per cent; truancy ("ditching"), 12.5 per cent; work, 5.9 per cent; and trips, 3.0 per cent.

These findings are in harmony with the known fact that illness is the greatest single cause of absence in any locality. The location of this study in a health resort accounts for the large percentage of absence due to illness. That colds and influenza caused more absences than any other single illness is in agreement with Dr. Mason's finding that absences due to respiratory diseases comprise the most important group and the most difficult to control.<sup>1</sup> In this study cases of illness were left to the direction of parent or guardian unless such direction was inadequate. Then aid was made available through co-operation of the school nurses with city and county health departments.

<sup>1</sup> Howard H. Mason, "Health and Regularity of School Attendance," *Teachers College Record*, XXIV (January, 1923), 26-36.

The causes of absence requiring individual adjustment comprised the second largest group—19.3 per cent of the cases studied. This finding justifies the use of the case study for adjustment of attendance difficulties; for, as C. L. Mosher, director of attendance of the New York State Department of Education has said, the case study enables the attendance supervisor to investigate conditions, discover the causes of the trouble, and build up a situation which will help the child who has attendance difficulties.<sup>1</sup>

The finding that truancy constituted the third largest number of cases (12.5 per cent) strengthens the recommendation that individual studies should be made of "children who are persistently truant."<sup>2</sup>

When work was reported as the cause of absence, verification of the report was made. The number of cases of sight-seeing trips was fewer than was expected in view of the location of the school in a winter resort.

#### A FEW CASE STUDIES

The purpose of this study was to reduce excessive absences in cases of individual girls. Because practically all cases of illness were under medical direction, the efforts of the investigator had little to do with reduction of excessive absence from this cause. Cases of excessive absence necessitated by work, on proper verification of the circumstances, were condoned by the school. Cases of excessive absence due to sight-seeing trips occurred when winter visitors included trips to the Grand Canyon and to California in their itineraries. These two groups, therefore, permitted no occasion for reduction of absence.

Thus opportunity for reduction of excessive absences was largely confined to the group of girls whose cases required individual adjustment and to the group caused by truancy. Together these groups numbered ninety-seven cases. The few of them reported here show the need for individual adjustment.

<sup>1</sup> Charles L. Mosher, "Helping the Individual Child through the Attendance Service—Abstract," *Official Report of the Department of Superintendence, 1932*, pp. 235-36. Washington: Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1932.

<sup>2</sup> *From Truancy to Crime*, pp. 15-16. New York State Subcommission on Causes and Effects of Crime, 1928. New York Legislative Documents, Vol. VI, No. 23.

Helen, a Senior, twenty years old, was frequently absent because of illness. Previously she had lost two years in school because she had been obliged to spend two years in bed. Like her father, Helen was nervous and had a slight disability in speech which intimidated her in the classroom. During the Senior year her absences increased until, finally, at the beginning of the second semester, she dropped out of school. Investigation revealed that her program of studies entailed so much home preparation that Helen was never able to go to bed before eleven o'clock. Home conditions were tense because the depression had forced the father, once a prosperous contractor and builder, to go on relief. Helen was further confused because her young sister in junior high school, an honor pupil, never had to study at home. The mother unconsciously magnified the difference between the two girls by her endless praise of the one and her deep consternation over the other. Helen promised to return to school, upon being assured that her program of studies could be arranged to give her less home study and, at the same time, enable her to be graduated the following year at the first mid-year commencement to be held in the high school. Since she had felt greatly humiliated over her age of twenty years, the latter possibility was very attractive to her. Encouraged by her new program of studies, she became happy in her work, became regular in attendance, and was graduated a year later in the mid-year class.

Mary, eighteen years old and a Senior, had had tubercular tendencies. She was subject to severe headaches and also to colds. Her habit of going out as often as she wished on school nights did not improve her health and often kept her out of school. The step-father lived out of town on a ranch. The mother worked as a waitress in a downtown restaurant, and her hours were such that Mary could often absent herself from school without her mother's knowledge. A visit to the home in this case was beneficial in the end, for it resulted in terminating the indiscriminate absence; but on the day of the call the mother beat her daughter so unmercifully that a vertebra was misplaced and required chiropractic adjustment. Thus the investigator learned from the daughter of the mother's violent temper, ungovernable at times, and planned thereafter to deal directly with the daughter. However, the mother, good at heart,

was determined to govern her daughter, and she broke the girl of staying out late on school nights by locking her out one night. The girl went home with her companions, who had escorted her home from a Sunday-school class party (they had not gone directly home from the party). Next day she asked the investigator to intercede for her with her mother. Teacher and girl went together to the home, but the mother was not there. After the dinner hour they went together to the restaurant where the mother was employed, and peace was restored. The disciplinary measure was severe and unexpected, but the daughter thereafter respected her mother's authority. Her attendance improved, and she was absent only when actual illness was her excuse.

Betty, a Sophomore sixteen years of age, "ditched" because she was influenced to do so by a group of careless girls of mediocre ability who had dropped out of school. The mother was dead, and Betty had been reared by her father. The aged paternal grandfather lived with them. An unruly brother had gone into the navy. Betty said the brother had left home because her father, when angry, beat him unmercifully, just as he did her when he was displeased with her. When not angry, he escorted Betty to dance halls and beer parlors, where he danced and drank with her. Much of the time he was drunk. The home was above average in size, construction, furnishings, and location. After it was learned that the father beat Betty, he was not again consulted with regard to her absence. She was fairly regular in her attendance for the remainder of her Sophomore year and for the early part of the Junior year, when she withdrew and married.

#### EFFECT OF THE INQUIRY

A study of the attendance records for the 97 cases resulted in the following tabulations of reduction of absence: (a) 37 cases showed permanent reduction for the semesters studied; (b) 31 cases showed no reduction; (c) 13 cases showed temporary reduction during the time studied; (d) 5 pupils remained in school who otherwise could not have done so; and (e) 11 withdrew as a result of excessive absence. The tabulations may be further summarized by combining items *a*, *c*, and *d* and by combining items *b* and *e*. Thus, 55, or 56.7

per cent, of the cases showed reduction of excessive absence, and 42, or 43.3 per cent, of the cases failed to show reduction of excessive absence.

The amounts of reduced absence based on bare records of the number of days absent and the excuses issued do not always indicate the effect that the making of a case study has on an individual case. This fact may be illustrated in many instances, such as the following: Each of three girls, Jewel, Doris, and Ila, was cured of truancy but later became subject to chronic appendicitis. Lois also was cured of truancy but so late in the second semester of her enrolment that the figures could not show the reduction of absence in comparison with the preceding semester's record. Therefore the statement that 56.7 per cent of the 97 cases of individual adjustment showed a reduction in excessive absence is conservative.

## SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

### I. CURRICULUM, METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION, AND MEASUREMENT

LEONARD V. KOOS

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THIS list of selected references opens the seventh annual cycle of twenty bibliographies covering almost the whole field of education which is being published co-operatively by the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal*. The order of appearance of the lists will be identical with that of former years.

The term "instruction" is used here in the same comprehensive sense in which it was used in earlier cycles of this bibliographical service: it includes curriculum, methods of teaching and study, supervision, and measurement. Most of the items deal with instruction in secondary-school grades (beginning with Grade VII and extending through junior-college years), but a small number are generic and refer to either elementary or secondary education.

The amount of published material in this field, especially on the curriculum, has increased to such proportions that it is no longer possible, even by lengthening the list, to include all writings of merit. More attention than formerly must, therefore, be given to making the list representative of different types of materials or points of view. A large portion of the increase in the total body of published materials on curriculum appears to be in the nature of descriptions of new curriculum ventures.

#### CURRICULUM<sup>1</sup>

1. AGAN, KARL E. "Planning a Continuously Changing Program in Chester High School," *Education for Dynamic Citizenship*, pp. 163-69. Twenty-

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 380 (Everett) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1938, number of the *Elementary School Journal* and chapter iii in Item 481 in the September, 1938, number of the *School Review*.

- fourth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings. University of Pennsylvania Bulletin, Vol. XXXVII, No. 29. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1937.
- Describes the co-operative curriculum-revision program initiated in the Chester (Pennsylvania) school system and, in particular, in the Chester High School.
2. AIKIN, WILFORD M. "Preparing Students for College," *Educational Record*, Supplement No. 11, XIX (January, 1938), 22-37.
- Reports the progress of the eight-year study of the Progressive Education Association in preparing young people for college. Makes reference to the work of the Commission on the Secondary-School Curriculum and, in discussing general education, quotes from its report at some length.
3. ASHBY, LLOYD W. "The Evolution of a Curriculum," *School Executive*, LVII (December, 1937), 178-80, 183.
- Traces the evolution of the junior high school curriculum and reports important trends.
4. BEATTY, T. BAYARD. "Planning a Continuously Changing Program of Secondary Education in Radnor High School," *Education for Dynamic Leadership*, pp. 157-62. Twenty-fourth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings. University of Pennsylvania Bulletin, Vol. XXXVII, No. 29. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1937.
- Brings down to date the continuous changes made in the curriculum of Radnor (Township) High School, as a result of its joining the Pennsylvania Study in 1928.
5. BODE, BOYD H. *Progressive Education at the Crossroads*. New York: Newson & Co., 1938. Pp. 128.
- An illuminating discussion having important implications for the curriculum.
6. BOSTWICK, PRUDENCE. "A High School Core Program," *Curriculum Journal*, IX (May, 1938), 204-7.
- Describes the experimental core program in Grades X-XII of the Manual Training High School, Denver, Colorado. Planned by eleven teachers representing English, social science, industrial arts, fine arts, music, science, vocational guidance, public speaking, dramatics, commerce, psychology, and home economics.
7. BROOKS, HAROLD B. "Curriculum Innovations on the Junior High-School Level," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XXII (March, 1938), 98-103.
- Reports various curriculum innovations at the junior high school level developed in the Long Beach (California) public schools, particularly George Washington Junior High School where a plan of group guidance is being carried out.
8. BROUN, HEYWOOD. "Beyond the Three R's," *New Republic*, XCV (June 1, 1938), 100-101.
- A refreshing advocacy by a layman of new emphases in the curriculum.

9. BROWN, WILLIAM B. "The Core Is Not All of the Curriculum," *Curriculum Journal*, IX (May, 1938), 210-12.  
Recognizes two main phases in the evolving curriculum: one the broad, unified program of general education represented by the core studies and the other the elective program planned in terms of personal and group interests. Makes a plea for a greater variety of electives, less early specialization by pupils, and more freedom of choice.
10. BRUMBAUGH, A. J. "Unifying Secondary School and Junior College," *Journal of Higher Education*, IX (February, 1938), 68-70.  
Describes the four-year experimental junior-college program at the University of Chicago.
11. BUCKINGHAM, B. R. "Disciplinary Values in Individualized Education," *Educational Record*, Supplement No. 11, XIX (January, 1938), 74-86.  
Discusses disciplinary values in their relation to individualized education. Favors the integrationists by calling attention to the Virginia course of study.
12. BUTTERFIELD, E. W. "A World of Machines—and People," *Official Report of the American Association of School Administrators*, 1938, pp. 50-60. Washington: American Association of School Administrators of the National Education Association, 1938.  
Recommends a series of "school shops"—(1) social study, (2) physical science, (3) cultural benefits, (4) the information room, and (5) industrial shops—for the mass of high-school pupils who have to take their places in a machine-minded and people-minded world.
13. CASWELL, HOLLIS L. "The Function of the Curriculum Director," *Curriculum Journal*, IX (October, 1938), 245-49.  
Considers the function of the curriculum director, with special emphasis on the factor of specialization.
14. CLEMENT, J. A. "Number and Nature of Curricula and Courses of Study in North Central Secondary Schools," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XII (January, 1938), 333-45.  
A tabular report of a questionnaire study of curriculum and course-of-study practices and of attitudes of school administrators toward certain current practices. Replies were received from 323 secondary schools in states of the North Central Association territory.
15. CONLEY, WILLIAM H. "Innovations in the Secondary-School Curriculum with Implications for the Junior College," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XXII (March, 1938), 54-57.  
Considers four major types of innovations in the curriculum of the secondary school which have implications for the junior college. Also presents a specific example of curriculum revision in the Chicago high schools, with its implications for the junior colleges in the system.

16. COTTRELL, DONALD P. "The Redirection of General Education," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIII (May, 1938), 298-301.  
Considers the need for formulating a guiding principle around which may be built a program of general education in a democratic and dynamic society.
17. CUSHMAN, C. L., and FOX, GUY. "Research and the Public-School Curriculum," *The Scientific Movement in Education*, pp. 67-78. Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1938.  
Expresses the opinion, citing various reports to substantiate it, that the gap between educational research and school practice is just as great as it was a decade ago and considers the major factors contributing to the maintenance of this gap. Also points out the significant gains that have been made, such as improved digesting of research and the planning of long-time curriculum-improvement programs. Generic as to educational level.
18. DOUGLASS, AUBREY A. *Modern Secondary Education*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1938. Pp. xviii + 782.  
A comprehensive treatise on the modern secondary school, containing several chapters concerned with the curriculum.
19. DOUGLASS, AUBREY A. "The Teacher, the Expert, and Curriculum Improvement," *Curriculum Journal*, VIII (November, 1937), 305-9.  
Curriculum improvement should start with the problems confronting the teacher; for, unless the sympathetic interest of the teacher is aroused, the work of the expert will be wasted. Generic as to educational level.
20. ENYEART, B. F. "Curriculum Administration in a Small City School System," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXIV (January, 1938), 39-49.  
Points out trends in curriculum reconstruction indicated by a number of publications. In particular, describes the development and the administration of the curriculum in the Burbank (California) Schools, giving an outline of the twelve-year sequence of areas of experience.
21. FLOWERS, WILLIAM R., TAYLOR, J. CAREY, and WILLIS, CHARLES F. "Baltimore's System-wide Curriculum Study Program," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*, XV (November-December, 1937), 49-62.  
Summarizes the history of curriculum construction in Baltimore and its present status and describes how the system-wide curriculum study will function through "features of flexibility that come from a changing personnel, co-operative study, and experimentation." Applies to both elementary-school and secondary-school levels.
22. FREDERICK, O. I., and FARQUEAR, LUCILE J. "Problems of Life," *School Review*, XLVI (May and June, 1938), 337-45, 415-22.  
As the basis for a dynamic core curriculum in the secondary school, analyzes the problems of life in each of nine major areas of human activity.

23. FREDERICK, O. I., and MUSSWHITE, LLOYD PACE. "Centers of Emphasis for Grades One through Twelve," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXII (October, 1938), 123-30.  
The authors' purpose is "to establish centers of interest or emphasis for Grades I through XII as a partial basis for a workable program for the core curriculum of elementary and secondary schools."
24. FRENCH, WILL. "Toward a New High School Curriculum," *Teachers College Record*, XXXIX (January, 1938), 307-14.  
Suggests a procedure of curriculum development by which the high-school principal and his faculty may shift from the "subject curriculum" to the "experience curriculum."
25. HARBESON, JOHN W. "The Experimental Program at Pasadena," *Junior College Journal*, VIII (April, 1938), 352-55.  
Describes the experimental curriculum projects being carried out under the six-four-four plan at Pasadena (California) Junior College.
26. HEATON, KENNETH L. "Innovations in the Secondary-School Curriculum," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XXII (March, 1938), 51-53.  
Reviews some of the experiments being made in the secondary-school curriculum.
27. HUTCHINS, ROBERT M. "The Organization and Subject Matter of General Education," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XXII (March, 1938), 6-14.  
President Hutchins sets forth his ideas on general education and advocates a curriculum which is being followed at St. John's College, Annapolis, Maryland. Also supports the junior college and the granting of the Bachelor's degree at the end of this period.
28. JESSEN, CARL A. *Needed Research in Secondary Education*. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 28, 1937. Pp. 70.  
Suggestions for research emerging from the National Survey of Secondary Education. Portions of the bulletin (pp. 48-66) contain suggestions for research in the curriculum.
29. JUDD, CHARLES H. "Specialization, the Bane of Secondary Education," *Proceedings of the National Education Association*, LXXVI (1938), 559-64.  
Defends the thesis of flexibility in the secondary-school curriculum as opposed to over-specialization.
30. JUDD, CHARLES H. "What Is General Education?" *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XXI (October, 1937), 5-16.  
Advocates breaking with the traditional European aristocratic concept of general education and providing at the secondary level a liberal education that is appropriate to present-day life.

31. JUDD, CHARLES H. "Core Curriculum for Social Intelligence," *Junior College Journal*, VIII (May, 1938), 398-404.  
Advocates for the junior college a program of general education that would have as its core a course in general language, a course in science, and a course in literature composed of the great classics of the race.
32. KINNEY, LUCIEN B., and FLOYD, OLIVER R. "A Unified Secondary Curriculum," *Curriculum Journal*, IX (January, 1938), 14-18.  
Describes the reorganization of the curriculum in Grades VII and VIII of the University of Minnesota High School. Considers the nature of the unified curriculum, the basic curriculum, the work of the curriculum committee, administrative readjustments, and evaluation.
33. KNUDSEN, CHARLES W. "Adapting the Curriculum to the Needs and Interests of Adolescents," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XXII (May, 1938), 1-7.  
Defines "needs" and "interests" and considers the problem of adapting the secondary-school curriculum to the needs and the interests of all adolescents.
34. LEARY, BERNICE E. *Curriculum Laboratories and Divisions*. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 7, 1938. Pp. vi+34.  
Describes the organization and the functions of curriculum laboratories and divisions in state departments of education, city school systems, and institutions of higher education.
35. LEARY, BERNICE E. *A Survey of Courses of Study and Other Curriculum Materials Published since 1934*. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 31, 1937. Pp. vi+186.  
A tabular listing of state, city, and county courses of study, which is preceded by an analysis according to geographic distribution, subjects and grades, aims and objectives, materials of instruction, methods and procedures, measurement, and the like. An important reference for curriculum workers.
36. LEONARD, J. PAUL. "What Is Happening to Subject Matter?" *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIII (February, 1938), 77-83.  
How most of the newer programs have departed from conventional practice and are using the social-functions approach is illustrated by citing the items which make up the scope of the curriculum for the state of Virginia and the city of Santa Barbara, California.
37. LINDER, IVAN H. "Subject Matter Has Its Place in Our Schools," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIII (February, 1938), 92-97.  
Describes the middle-of-the-road position taken by the Palo Alto Senior High School with regard to the place of subject matter in the secondary school.
38. LINDQUIST, R. D. "Curriculum Innovations in the Junior High School," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XXII (March, 1938), 110-13.  
A brief description of some of the more progressive modifications in content, methods, and organization at the junior high school level.

39. McCONNELL, T. R. "Functional Curricula for General Education," *Junior College Journal*, VIII (March, 1938), 301-7.  
Compares the characteristics of a functional approach to general education with those of the subject-matter survey.
40. MAIER, JOHN V. "Integration Wins in Wilson Junior High 2-Year Test," *Clearing House*, XIII (September, 1938), 3-8.  
Describes the "unit of work" program in effect in a high school in Muncie, Indiana.
41. NORRIS, LOY. "Changes in Courses in Junior Colleges," *Junior College Journal*, VIII (February, 1938), 239-42.  
A study of changes in course offerings over the period 1930-31 to 1936-37, inclusive. Data were collected from junior-college catalogues from seven states in the North Central area.
42. OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL, CLASS OF 1938. *Were We Guinea Pigs?* New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1938. Pp. 304.  
An interesting account by the first graduating class in the six-year experiment carried on in the Ohio State University High School.
43. PARKER, J. CECIL. "The Michigan Study of the Secondary School Curriculum," *Curriculum Journal*, VIII (December, 1937), 366-68.  
A brief description of a twelve-year study (beginning with 1937-38) of the secondary-school curriculum, which has been undertaken by the Michigan Department of Public Instruction.
44. PATTY, WILLIAM L. *A Study of Mechanism in Education*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 739. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. vi+184.  
The author, by examining the curriculum-making devices of Bobbitt, Charters, and Peters, makes "an attempt to see some of the more significant differences between attempts at a scientifically constructed content curriculum and the more changeful activity program."
45. PEIK, W. E. "A Generation of Research on the Curriculum," *The Scientific Movement in Education*, pp. 53-67. Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1938.  
Reviews the principal features of curriculum development as they existed a century ago, discusses the nature and the methods of the new curriculum-research movement, and attempts an appraisal of the movement.
46. *Progressive Education Advances—Report on a Program To Educate American Youth for Present-Day Living*. A Publication of the Progressive Education Association. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. 70.  
Describes the organization and the work of the Progressive Education Association, the Commission on the Relation of School and College, the Commission on the Secondary-School Curriculum, and the Commission on Human Relations.

47. RANKIN, PAUL T. "Planning for Curriculum Development," *Proceedings of the National Education Association*, LXXV (1937), 569-71.  
Describes the characteristics of a program of curriculum development, which, in the author's opinion, is desirable for general adoption.
48. VREDEVOOGD, L. E. "Providing Means for Student Participation through the Curriculum," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XXII (March, 1938), 103-10.  
Explains in detail several forms of pupil participation in the Tappan Junior High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan. The account of the functions of the excursion committee is especially interesting.
49. WALTON, GEORGE A. "Individualizing the Curriculum," *Educational Record*, Supplement No. 11, XIX (January, 1938), 160-66.  
Describes the program of three-year-sequence curriculums that the George School, a member of the eight-year study of the Progressive Education Association, has introduced alongside a college-preparatory curriculum of conventional units.
50. *Ways to Better High Schools: The Principal and Curriculum Reorganization*. Prepared for the Committee on Supervision by Paul R. Pierce. University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. XXXV, No. 67. Urbana, Illinois: High School Visitor, University of Illinois, 1938. Pp. 24.  
In addition to introductory materials, this bulletin gives outlines of four stages of curriculum reorganization, namely, "The Principal's Work with Units of Learning," "Planning a Community School Program," "Putting the Community School Curriculum into Effect," and "Evaluation and Extension of Curriculum Procedures."
51. WOODRUFF, C. H. "Common-Sense Curriculum Development in Long Beach Junior High Schools through Special-Interest Courses," *Clearing House*, XII (November, 1937), 159-62.  
Describes the development of special-interest courses and the method of incorporating them into the regular curriculum of the junior high schools of Long Beach, California.

#### METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION

52. BARR, A. S. "Building Up a Program of Well-planned Diagnostic Supervision," *Education for Dynamic Citizenship*, pp. 231-38. Twenty-fourth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings. University of Pennsylvania Bulletin, Vol. XXXVII, No. 29. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1937.  
Proposes six steps in a practical scientific program of diagnostic supervision. Generic as to educational level.
53. BEDNARD, THAD J. "Supervision in Catholic High Schools," *Catholic School Journal*, XXXVIII (September, 1938), 192-94.  
Outlines the general supervisory devices used by high-school supervisors, as revealed through 104 answers to a questionnaire submitted to principals in various sections of the country.

54. BRIGGS, THOMAS H. *Improving Instruction*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938. Pp. x+588.  
The distillation of twenty years' experience in teaching a university course on the improvement of instruction in the secondary school.
55. BROWNELL, WILLIAM A. "What Has Happened to Supervised Study?" *Educational Method*, XVII (May, 1938), 373-77.  
Presents and interprets tabular evidence on the status of supervised study.
56. DOUGLASS, HARL R., and BAUER, HAROLD C. "The Study Practices of Three Hundred Ninety-five High-School Pupils," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXIX (January, 1938), 36-43.  
A tabular report of the study practices of 395 pupils in five medium-sized high schools of southwestern Minnesota.
57. EDMISTON, R. W. "Study Conditions in High School and College," *School and Society*, XLVIII (September 17, 1938), 379-80.  
Gives data obtained in an investigation of the study conditions existing in living quarters of high-school and college students.
58. FREDERICK, ROBERT W., RAGSDALE, CLARENCE E., and SALISBURY, RACHEL. *Directing Learning*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xvi+528.  
A treatise on methods in secondary schools which stresses teaching as the direction of study and learning.
59. GATES, ARTHUR I. "Contributions of Research to General Methods of Instruction," *The Scientific Movement in Education*, pp. 79-90. Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1938.  
A brief survey of the contributions of scientific study to methods of instruction.
60. JACOBSON, PAUL B. "The School Principal and Modern Supervision," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XXII (February, 1938), 12-18.  
Deals with the problems of a principal in a modern system of supervision. Topics discussed are "Development of the Principalship," "What Supervisors Do," "Faculty Meetings," "Group Meetings," "Demonstration Teaching," "Curriculum," and "Testing."
61. JOHNSON, B. LAMAR. "The High School Principal Works in His School Library," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XII (April, 1938), 424-29.  
An inquiry into the place of the library in the supervisory program of the secondary school.
62. *Psychology and Methods in the High School and College*. Review of Educational Research, Vol. VIII, No. 1. Washington: American Educational

Research Association of the National Education Association, 1938.  
Pp. 102.

Reviews research studies reported from January, 1934, to July, 1937, in psychology and methods at the high-school and the college levels.

63. REEDER, EDWIN H. "A Neglected Aspect of Supervision," *Elementary School Journal*, XXXIX (September, 1938), 17-26.

Proposes four ways in which a supervisor may exert leadership in subject matter. Generic as to educational level.

64. WILSON, HOWARD E. "Thou Shalt Never Lecture?" *Harvard Educational Review*, VIII (January, 1938), 17-18.

A brief statement in favor of including "talks by the teacher" in classroom procedure, as opposed to the dictum that teachers should never lecture—at least not in the secondary school.

#### MEASUREMENT<sup>1</sup>

65. BECK, ROLAND L. "Progressive Education and Measurement," *Education*, LVIII (May, 1938), 557-59.

Discusses the present testing program of the Progressive Education Association for the evaluation of the outcomes of teaching.

66. DAVIS, MARY DABNEY; EVERARD, L. C.; KOON, CLINE M.; LATHROP, EDITH A.; PROFFITT, MARIS M.; and SEGEL, DAVID. "Developments in Educational Method, 1934-36," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1934-36*, Vol. I, chap. x. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 2, 1937. Pp. vi+54 (advance pages).

"Development in Measurement" (pp. 12-21), prepared by David Segel, surveys briefly the recent important developments in adapting measurement to the objectives of the curriculum. Other topics discussed are new areas for measurement, state-wide testing programs, and pupil-personnel records.

67. LEE, J. MURRAY. "The Changing Curriculum Challenges Measurement," *Education*, LVIII (May, 1938), 531-34.

Considers the implications for the future development of measurement which are contained in the statement of curriculum trends in *The Changing Curriculum* (Item No. 16 in the list of selected references appearing in the January, 1938, number of the *School Review*).

68. ORLEANS, JACOB S. *Measurement in Education*. New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons, 1937. Pp. xvi+462.

A general treatise on measurement, generic as to school level and suitable for textbook use, which "takes as its starting point the functioning of the school and the needs for measurements in that functioning."

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 588 (Learned and Wood) in the list of selected references appearing in the December, 1938, number of the *School Review*.

69. RATHS, LOUIS E. "Evaluating the Program of a School," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XVII (March 16, 1938), 57-84.  
An issue devoted to reporting an extensive testing program in one of the thirty schools co-operating in the eight-year study of the Progressive Education Association. Discusses newer conceptions of evaluation, evaluating the school program, and the interpretations of the data.
70. SCOTT, IRA O. "Use of the Examination To Stimulate Learning," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIII (April, 1938), 223-25.  
Gives the results of an experiment to determine the effectiveness of the examination as a device to stimulate secondary-school pupils to learn. Involves 805 junior and senior high school pupils in 37 instructional groups in Garden City, Kansas.
71. SMITH, WILLIAM A. "A Review of the Literature on Evaluation," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIII (April, 1938), 219-22.  
A selective review of the literature on evaluation. Indicates the important trends in the measurement field.
72. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. *The Use of Test Results in Secondary Schools*. Educational Records Bulletin No. 25. New York: Educational Records Bureau (437 West Fifty-ninth Street), 1938. Pp. vi+110.  
Contains a report of an inquiry by questionnaire on the use of test results in secondary schools holding membership in the Educational Records Bureau; a selected and well-annotated list of tests; and a bibliography of books, monographs, and articles dealing with testing and the use of test results.
73. TYLER, RALPH W. "The Specific Techniques of Investigation: Examining and Testing Acquired Knowledge, Skill, and Ability," *The Scientific Movement in Education*, pp. 341-55. Thirty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1938.  
Considers the influence and the development of the achievement-testing movement in two clearly defined periods: 1897-1927 and 1927-38. Generic as to school level.

## Educational Writings

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### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

**YOUTH PROBLEMS REVEALED BY INTERVIEW.**—Opinion and research have considered problems of youth in modern societies, especially in relation to economic conditions and political changes in western countries. Types of youth problems, such as employment, migration, political outlook, and crime, have been investigated. Integrated efforts to study numerous related problems within a particular area, however, are less common; hence the significance of a study which attempts such an integrated approach.<sup>1</sup>

Thirty-five interviewers during a seven-month period secured the data from 13,528 Maryland youth of the ages of sixteen to twenty-four. The Foreword briefly states ten major problems revealed by the study; the Introduction sketches the procedure in the study and describes the selection and the training of personnel; and a preliminary chapter points out "National Implications of the Maryland Data."

The six chapters constituting the body of the report are concerned with the relations of race, age, sex, religion, and place of residence to types of social conditions. A chapter on "Youth and the Home" examines these matters in relation to broken homes, economic aspects of the home, marriage, and ideas of youth regarding their future homes. "Youth and the School" studies the same aspects in relation to youth in school, out-of-school youth, reasons why youth leave school, youth's economic and cultural evaluation of schooling, and the social importance of grade-level attainment. "Youth at Work" considers essentially these matters in relation to youth in the labor market, the earnings and attitudes of employed youth, ages at beginning employment, unemployed youth, and social stratification in employment patterns. Similarly, "Youth at Play" studies this group of items in relation to use of leisure, club activities, movies, libraries, recreation programs, opportunity for social mingling, and juvenile delinquency. A chapter on "Youth and the Church" considers church affiliation, church attendance, the opinions of the youth with regard to the proper function of the church, and the use made of churches as recreation centers. The final chapter, "Attitudes," studies youth attitudes toward wages, relief, child labor, suffrage, employment of married women, drinking, war, and the "youth problem."

<sup>1</sup> Howard M. Bell, *Youth Tell Their Story. A Study of the Conditions and Attitudes of Young People in Maryland between the Ages of 16 and 24. Conducted for the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1938. Pp. 274. \$1.50.*

The data are presented in ninety-nine easily understood tables, illustrated by twenty-three figures and by thirty-nine full-page pictorial graphs. The data are discussed in an easy, nontechnical style. Numerous illustrative quotations from interviews add a qualitative note, and well-spaced summaries aid readers in retaining the chief findings. The research student finds an appendix; lists of tables, figures, and graphs; a copy of the interview schedule; and a short index.

In the chapter on the national implications of the study, comparisons are made between the Maryland sample and the youth of the entire nation with respect to age, sex, race, marital status, nativity, school status, and farm residence. For all items except nativity, great similarity between the two groups is indicated. With due consideration for sampling precautions, some readers might, however, question the representativeness within certain categories. Thus, in spite of the wide topographical variation within a small state, could farm youth there be so sampled as to represent the agricultural variation of America from the deep South, through the Middle West, the Plains states, and the Rocky Mountains, to the Pacific coast? Question might also arise whether the status and the outlook of negro youth in a border state, with half of its population in one city, is typical of their status and outlook in the areas in which most negroes still live. In a discussion of suffrage and non-voting (p. 229), the study assumes that all youth twenty-two years old and over have had opportunity to vote. The justification for this assumption would seem to be related to the timing of the study and the frequency of elections.

Regardless of such questions as the foregoing, however, the report makes a decided contribution to the study of youth problems and carries many implications for the entire country. The general pattern of some of the findings may not be new to readers familiar with the literature on youth and social problems, but the scope of the study and the quantitative evaluation of many problems considered will indeed add comprehensiveness and concreteness to an understanding of those problems. Clearly the report should be an asset to both lay and professional persons interested in the problems of youth from any such standpoints as employment, public welfare, delinquency, or education.

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**PUPIL REACTION TO PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION.**—Books on progressive education are no longer novelties, but evaluation of a progressive-school program in terms of the pupils' opinions is both novel and stimulating. Such a book<sup>1</sup> has been written by fifty-five Seniors, the first graduating class to have spent a full six years in the extremely progressive University High School of Ohio State University, "the school with the pink rooms and the green blackboards" (p. 1).

<sup>1</sup> Class of 1938, University High School, Ohio State University, *Were We Guinea Pigs?* New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1938. Pp. x+304. \$2.00.

The publication was planned as a substitute for the traditional yearbook and as a means of correcting misunderstandings of what progressive education is. As a yearbook it is a refreshing example, but as an evaluation of progressive education it will not be satisfactory to extremists of either the progressive or the traditional viewpoint because it does not support either extreme. While the pupils do not regret their six years ("Maybe we were guinea pigs, but we, our parents, and our teachers are still glad we took the chance" [p. 299]), they do not indorse their experiences without reservation. Science had "not been as satisfactory as it might have been" (p. 83), and foreign language, particularly Latin as it was taught, did not satisfy them.

One of the distinguishing features of progressive-school procedure is the "core course," usually consisting of English, social science, and the fine arts, although science or other subjects may be added at times. Such "core courses" meet for approximately half a day so that planning and discussion need not be interrupted by the class bell. In the "core course" the Ohio graduates believe implicitly.

Another important tenet of progressive education is that pupils shall plan their work. Concerning this point the authors say: "For about our first four years, we thought we were doing all the planning. But in the eleventh grade, some of us began to suspect that we were doing just what the teachers wanted us to do" (p. 21). The doubt was dispelled in the minds of the pupils. With some adults, including the reviewer, it still persists.

Art loomed large in the experience of these children. Other schools would do well to emulate the offering and opportunity even though election could scarcely be as free in a large city high school as in an experimental school. Christmas assemblies were pageants related to several departments, including art, and everyone who wished took part in these pageants. Undoubtedly the programs were educational; whether most school administrators would consider them worth the price ("A large number of students spend the week before the program for preparations" [p. 238]) is quite another matter.

Trips to places of interest in Columbus, as well as two longer excursions to Detroit and New York, were planned and carried out under chaperonage of the faculty. Little doubt can be expressed that such experiences may be valuable for pupils if they are carefully planned and executed. From the experiences of success and failure which the authors noted, the faculty will undoubtedly be able to guide more successfully the planning for future excursions.

One unusual feature of the school is a course required in Grades XI and XII, "Nature of Proof," which aims to teach pupils to think critically. Based on a study of simplified Euclidian geometry and an analysis of arguments commonly met in political speeches, advertisements, and the like, the course has been unusually successful. Not only did the pupils develop critical insight which they applied in all their classes, but they also did very well on formal tests of plane geometry. It is to be hoped that many schools will attempt reorganizations of

mathematics along this line or similar lines to make the product of teaching function in everyday living.

Pupil opinion of a school program is only one form of evaluation, but it is a form which has too frequently been neglected. Whether the opinions expressed are genuinely those of the pupils, as the authors insist, or are the result of skilfully guided adult planning, is a matter on which no unanimity of opinion may be expected. Concerning the value of a progressive-education program such as the authors have described and indorsed, in comparison with the less spectacular procedure in a school where, for example, subject-matter lines have been retained but thoughtful and conscientious correlation has been achieved, no final answer can be given, at least until the evaluation staff which is measuring the results of the eight-year study of the Progressive Education Association makes its report in 1941.

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MORE EFFICIENT READING IN HIGH SCHOOL.—Current interest in instruction in reading at the high-school level is being manifested in at least four ways: (1) emphasis on free-reading classes to motivate interest and to improve reading ability; (2) remedial instruction to accelerate growth on the part of retarded readers; (3) instruction in reading in content classes to assure satisfactory understanding of special fields; and (4) developmental instruction to aid each pupil to approach, if not to attain, his maximum efficiency as a reader. The fourth trend is probably an outgrowth of the other three and is the result of a growing recognition that, unassisted, few pupils attain their maximum reading ability. This trend is well illustrated in a new book<sup>1</sup> which is addressed to boys and girls who have not yet attained their greatest reading power.

The book is designed to promote a number of different reading skills and to appeal to a variety of interests. It is divided into two parts. Part I consists of lessons in "How To Read" and contains instructions, illustrated by concrete examples, dealing with different skills in reading under the five titles: "Understanding What You Read," "How To Read Faster," "Different Kinds of Reading," "Developing Power," and "Making Reading a Life-Habit." Part II is organized into nine units of practice material, with directions and tests. These units are organized on the basis of subjects of interest, and they provide practice in the reading skills presented in Part I. The units include stories, news-reading, personal problems, biography, interesting places, history, science, current problems, and art appreciation. In addition to the practice material on these subjects, frequent reference is made to other material which the pupil may be interested in reading.

The book combines, in an effective manner, instruction in certain reading practices and motivation of reading interest. So many skills are presented, how-

<sup>1</sup> Mabel Vinson Cage, *Reading in High Gear*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1938.  
Pp. x+348. \$1.48.

ever, that there is a possibility of confusing the immature reader. There is need for greater emphasis on the intelligent selection of skills to suit various purposes. The emphasis on motivation throughout the book should contribute effectively to the aim of the author to develop lifelong reading habits.

The teacher of reading will find the book a valuable source of suggestions on methods and materials for a developmental program in reading. It may be used also as a textbook in high-school classes.

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A DISTINCTIVE FIELD OF JOURNALISM.—Recognizing the rapid expansion in the field of high-school journalism, particularly since 1930, DeWitt C. Reddick,<sup>1</sup> of the University of Texas, has attempted to "treat adequately for the student all of those basic principles which high-school journalism has in common with professional journalism and, in addition, to describe those distinctive forms which fit best in school journalism" (p. v).

The material of this recent textbook is presented in five major divisions: an introduction to the newspaper, a résumé of the reporter's work, a discussion of specialized forms of writing, a survey of the mechanics of editing, and a summary of business problems. Numerous exercises for the pupils are suggested at the end of each chapter.

One of the most valuable contributions to the high-school journalist in this book is an outline of errors for which the copyreader must be on guard. The author's style sheet for a high-school newspaper is an excellent statement of rules which should be followed in secondary-school publications.

While the arrangement of the material in this book is logical and its presentation is clear and should be easily grasped by the high-school pupil, some high-school teachers of journalism will feel that the author has followed too closely the pattern of existing textbooks in the field and has failed to emphasize sufficiently the distinctive features of high-school journalism. Like other textbooks in high-school journalism, *Journalism and the School Paper* is primarily an instruction book in the mechanics of newspaper editing and publishing. To teachers interested in such a work, the book can be recommended without reservation. The reviewer regrets that it cannot be recommended with the same enthusiasm to the many teachers who are eagerly awaiting a textbook in high-school journalism which will emphasize the place of the newspaper in modern society—a book which stresses the appreciation of the newspaper rather than the mastery of newspaper technique.

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<sup>1</sup> DeWitt C. Reddick, *Journalism and the School Paper*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. viii + 342. \$1.48.

**DEVELOPING LEADERS IN THE SCHOOL.**—Teachers and administrative officials, especially in secondary schools, have made great claims for the institutions over which they preside on the ground that the schools are performing the essential function of training the leaders on whose shoulders will fall responsibility for the stability and the progress of society in the next generation. Just what they did to produce this beneficent result, however, educators have not been free to explain in detail. The bewildering and the fearsome times in which we live and the continuing desire of the American people to build institutions that will unfailingly serve the welfare of the common man, however, demonstrate as never before the necessity of giving careful thought in educational circles to the means of developing leaders who are both competent and devoted to democratic ideals.

Under these circumstances the profession will be prepared to welcome the appearance of a substantial manual<sup>1</sup> which is intended to assist the schools in planning suitable programs and to stimulate experimentation and research in this direction. The twelve chapters of the book are divided into three parts. The first part, "Principles of Leadership," defines leadership, the characteristics of leaders, and the fundamentals of a program of training. In the second part four chapters are devoted to the description of social institutions and to the plans for training young leaders in Athens, Rome, England, and Soviet Russia. The third part, "The United States and Leadership," includes five chapters on the "American Colonies and Colonial Schools," "American Education and Leadership," "Leadership and the Equalization of Educational Opportunity," "The Educational Program of the School and Leadership," and "A Leadership Program."

Where investigative material is available, the author has, in large part, made use of this material under the headings above mentioned. Not only opportunities in extra-curriculum activities but those that are offered in various types of curriculum programs have been examined. The inevitable connection between prevailing social ideals in a nation and that nation's educational program has been noted many times. It is regrettable that a larger number of references than the three to eight cited have not been made available at the ends of chapters for the convenience of persons who would like to read further.

The work will prove especially useful to principals and teachers in secondary schools, to professors of school administration and of secondary education in higher institutions, and to professional students who desire to make specific and effective contributions to training for leadership and are, therefore, interested both in what has been done and in what can be done to that end.

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<sup>1</sup> Arthur J. Jones, *The Education of Youth for Leadership*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xx+246. \$2.00.

NEW BOOKS IN A GROUP-GUIDANCE SERIES.—The second<sup>1</sup> and third<sup>2</sup> volumes of a new group-guidance series prove as interesting as did the first book (*School and Life*, reviewed in the May, 1938, number of the *School Review*), which dealt with the problems encountered by beginning high-school pupils. These books also follow the group approach in meeting the guidance needs of high-school pupils. They differ from the earlier volume in devoting major attention to the development of skills in self-direction for adult living in the years ahead, rather than during the high-school days. Their emphasis is on the planning aspect of guidance.

Both volumes are written in a fashion which will appeal to many high-school pupils. The style is frequently conversational, and the stories usually deal with other young people, who seem real and living. The books are both well illustrated. Suggested activities and readings are a part of the various chapters. A Teachers' Manual, which accompanies the series, is replete with fruitful suggestions for the use of these materials in schools making provisions for group-guidance activities. The authors believe that group guidance and individual counseling should be closely related.

In *Designs for Personality*, after the pupil has been assisted in getting an objective view of himself, he is faced with the more difficult task of learning to build his own design for the type of personality which he is interested in developing. The general viewpoint and the charm which have prevailed in Miss Bennett's earlier books are evident here, as is illustrated by this quotation from the Foreword: "Personality is a living, ever-changing tapestry. Its warp is fashioned of our human potentialities; its woof is spun from the world of people and things. We weave the pattern as we live from day to day."

The pupil is induced to study his own personality liabilities and assets through reading interesting snapshot word pictures of other high-school pupils. The value of short cuts to personality development is discussed. The vocational is treated as but one aspect of a total life. Some of the chapters are: "Learning More about Self," "Developing Your Personality," "Learning the Rules of the Game," "Planning Your Vocational Preparation," and "What Will Life Mean to You?"

*Beyond High School* invites the pupil to think realistically about the problems that he will face when his high-school days are over. A story form, similar to that of the other volumes, attracts the immediate interest of the pupil. The problems of training beyond the high school, occupational preparation, leisure, family life, and life-philosophy are treated in chapters the titles of which, in question form, indicate the problems under discussion: "Will College Help

<sup>1</sup> Margaret E. Bennett and Harold C. Hand, *Designs for Personality*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xiv+222. \$1.36.

<sup>2</sup> Margaret E. Bennett and Harold C. Hand, *Beyond High School*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xvi+228. \$1.62.

You?" "Will You Use Leisure Wisely?" "Will You Establish a Home?" "What Will Be Your Life Philosophy?"

The reviewer believes that these volumes can serve a useful purpose in a group-guidance program. They are sound psychologically and should interest most high-school Juniors and Seniors. In the hands of a skilful teacher or guidance worker, they will prove of great value to pupils in planning for the future.

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**PHYSICAL-EDUCATION FACILITIES.**—The history of the growth of the modern program in physical education in American schools has been marked by the introduction and the use of various European systems of gymnastics, pupil-controlled athletics, and, until late years, general disagreement among physical educators regarding the activities that should be included and the methods that should be used to provide a desirable program for all pupils enrolled in the public schools. The trial-and-error method of developing physical education, combined with the comparatively recent introduction of the course into secondary schools, has impeded progress toward an efficient standard code for facilities.

A number of isolated studies pertaining to physical-education facilities have been conducted and a few authors have devoted some space to the subject, but their influence has been insufficient to establish uniformity where uniform procedures are desirable. Two commendable books have been published which should prove valuable to both administrators and physical educators. There has been a need for information in a composite form dealing with physical-education facilities, and these authors have supplied a large amount of practical material.

*Physical Educational Facilities for the Modern Junior and Senior High School*<sup>1</sup> gives the results of an objective study of the physical-education program and facilities in a number of high schools in the states of Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. The purpose of the study was to determine to what extent the facilities provided for the physical-education program in junior and senior high schools conform to the standards that are generally recognized by educators as necessary for the conduct of an adequate program. In justifying the need for the study, the author states: "No other single subject in the secondary curriculum has been introduced so recently, has been subject to so much mandatory legislation, has cost so much for facilities and equipment in proportion to per pupil use, or has such a variety of facilities considered essential for its proper development as has physical education" (p. 3).

The method of procedure used in the study was to obtain, from leading school architects, floor plans of what they considered their most effective treatment of the physical-education facilities; to obtain plans and specifications for junior and senior high schools which had been approved during the two years from

<sup>1</sup> Herbert Blair, *Physical Educational Facilities for the Modern Junior and Senior High School*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1938. Pp. xii+174. \$2.50.

January, 1927, to December, 1928, by the state departments in Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania (a total of 107 schools were suitable for study); and to make visits to ten cities in each of the four states where, in the opinion of the state director of physical education, the program was especially effective in meeting the needs of the community.

After an extensive study of the literature in the field for the purpose of determining what features should be provided for the physical-education program, criteria were set up by which to rate the facilities in the 107 buildings. The relative importance of the various features was also considered. It was found that, although there is no general agreement among specialists, there is sufficient agreement to provide standards on such phases as the physical director's office, examination rooms, gymnasiums, walls, floors, bleachers, lighting, corrective rooms, apparatus rooms, dressing-rooms, showers, team rooms, sanitary features, towel and suit facilities, and drying-rooms.

In order to secure a comparison of the values of different types of facilities, the author obtained opinions of representative leaders in the field. A score card was developed by which the 107 schools were scored on the basis of 1,000 points. Only 12 of the 107 buildings were scored above 500 points.

The architects' plans, the facilities provided by the 107 buildings, and the physical-education program of representative schools showed that desirable types of facilities are not too well provided, largely because of a lack of knowledge on the part of architects with regard to the proper facilities and the disagreement among educators with respect to types of programs, use of buildings, and values of certain types of facilities.

This book, although limited in scope, points out many weaknesses in providing for physical education and, for that reason, should be helpful to those planning construction.

*The Athletic Plant*<sup>1</sup> is largely confined to treatment of methods of constructing and caring for equipment for interschool athletics, although one chapter is devoted to a description of a model athletic field and plant and one chapter to leisure-time activities. Detailed specifications are given for the shop construction of equipment used in football, basketball, swimming, field hockey, ice hockey, track, baseball, handball, tennis, horseshoe-pitching, archery, table tennis, badminton, tetherball, tin-can golf, codeball, boxing, and lacrosse. Space is given to constructing, marking, and caring for fields and courts. Illumination of athletic fields for night use, bleacher construction, scoreboards, field markers, sound installation, and modern efficiency in handling athletic contests are discussed in detail. There is a wealth of practical information in this book, and every school where interscholastic athletics are conducted could make good use of the material.

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<sup>1</sup> Emil Lamar, *The Athletic Plant: Layout, Equipment, and Care*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. x+302. \$3.00.

## CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY  
AND PRACTICE

- ALINGTON, C. *A Plea for a Plan: The Two Types of Education*. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1938. Pp. viii+150. \$1.75.
- Critical Issues in Educational Administration*. Compiled and edited by William C. Reavis. Proceedings of the Seventh Annual Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools, Vol. I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938. Pp. viii+192. \$2.00.
- Education for American Life: A New Program for the State of New York*. The Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1938. Pp. xviii+168. \$2.00.
- EVENDEN, E. S., STRAYER, G. D., and ENGELHARDT, N. L. *Standards for College Buildings*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. x+226. \$2.25.
- HARTMAN, GERTRUDE. *Finding Wisdom: Chronicles of a School of Today*. New York: John Day Co., 1938. Pp. xvi+148. \$3.00.
- HYERS, FAITH HOLMES. *The Library and the Radio*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938. Pp. xii+102. \$0.75.
- Laboratory Techniques of Teaching: The Contribution of Research to Teachers Planning the Individualization of Instruction*. By the Members of Education 335-336M, 1937-1938, with an Introduction by Thomas H. Briggs. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. 82.
- LANGFITT, R. EMERSON. *The Daily Schedule and High-School Organization*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938. Pp. xvi+340. \$2.50.
- MAYHEW, ARTHUR. *Education in the Colonial Empire*. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1938. Pp. xii+292. \$2.50.
- NASH, JAY B. *Teachable Moments: A New Approach to Health*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1938. Pp. x+244. \$1.50.
- RAMSEY, GRACE FISHER. *Educational Work in Museums of the United States: Development, Methods and Trends*. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1938. Pp. xiv+290. \$2.50.
- SMITH, SAMUEL, and SPEER, ROBERT K. *Supervision in the Elementary School*. New York: Cordon Co., 1938. Pp. 460. \$2.90.

## BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- ABOUT, EDMOND. *Le Roi des montagnes*. Retold by Leif Christopher Dahl, Henri Pochard, and Clotilde Dahl. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. vi+120. \$1.00.
- BOND, OTTO F. *En Route! An Introductory French Grammar for Reading*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. vi+110. \$0.92.

- CEPPI, MARC. *Les Emplois de Pierre Quiroule*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., Pp. 86. \$0.48.
- CIOFFARI, VINCENZO, and VAN HORNE, JOHN. *Amici di scuola*. A Graded Italian Reader. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. iv+58. \$0.28.
- COLEMAN, ALGERNON. *Intermediate French Course: Graded Readings and Grammar Review*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. xiv+480. \$1.80.
- CRU, ALBERT L. *Le Français expliqué*. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1938. Pp. xii+220. \$1.16.
- DARINGER, HELEN FERN. *Grammar for Everyday Use*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1938. Pp. x+338. \$1.00.
- ECKERSLEY, C. E. *Essential English: A Progressive Course for Foreign Students*, Book I. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1938. Pp. xii+244. \$1.50.
- EDWARDS, VIOLET. *Group Leader's Guide to Propaganda Analysis*. Revised Edition of Experimental Study Materials for Use in Junior and Senior High Schools, in College and University Classes, and in Adult Study Groups. New York: Institute for Propaganda Analysis, Inc. (130 Morningside Drive), 1938. Pp. 240+32.
- ERNST, PAUL. *Der Schatz im Morgenbrotstal*. With Introduction, Notes, and Vocabulary by Harry Eisenbrown. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. x+182. \$1.00.
- Fifty German Folk-Songs with Airs*. Collected by A. A. K. Swannell. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. Pp. 104. \$0.60.
- FLANAGAN, GEORGE A. *A Treatise on Ornamental Typewriting: Designed To Aid in the Preparation of Typewritten Matter in a Way To Catch the Eye Most Effectively and To Satisfy the Esthetic Taste*. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1938. Pp. viii+114. \$1.00.
- FRANKLIN, H. W. F., and BRUCE, J. A. G. *A New Course in Latin Prose Composition*, Parts II & III. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1937. Pp. x+124. \$1.10.
- GÖTZ, CURT, and FUNKE, ERICH. *Zwei moderne Einakter*. Edited with Visible Vocabulary, Notes, and Exercises by Erich Funke. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. 60+vocabulary. \$0.40.
- GOLLOCK, G. A. *Stories of Famous Africans*, pp. 62, \$0.30; *More Stories of Famous Africans*, pp. 62, \$0.30. The New Method English Library. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1938.
- Haensel and Gretel: The Story of Humperdinck's Opera*. Adapted by Robert Lawrence. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1938. Pp. 40. \$0.60.
- HERDMAN, T. *Discovering Geography*: Book I, In Britain, pp. viii+152; Book II, Abroad, pp. vi+154. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1938. \$0.75 each.
- JOHNSON, ROY IVAN; COWAN, ESTHER MARSHALL; and PEACOCK, MARY STAFFORD. *Study and Appreciation of the Short Story*. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1938. Pp. lii+398+(liii-lxxxii). \$1.40.

- KANY, C. E. *Elementary Spanish Conversation*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. viii+46. \$0.32.
- KING, WILLIAM A., and FULLENWIDER, ELMER D. *The Pacific Northwest: Its Resources and Industries*. Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Co., 1938. Pp. 390.
- KUMMER, FREDERIC ARNOLD. *The Great Road*. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co., 1938. Pp. xii+306. \$2.50.
- LANDRY, JOSEPH A. *Graded French Word and Idiom Book: A Use Book of Vander Beke's "French Word Book" and Cheydeleur's "French Idiom List" with Special Aids in Building a Reading Vocabulary*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. viii+154. \$0.84.
- Living Today—Learning for Tomorrow: A Course for the Social Studies from the Kindergarten through the Senior High School—Seattle Public Schools*. Prepared by the Social Studies Committee in co-operation with W. Virgil Smith. Seattle, Washington: Seattle Public Schools, 1938. Pp. 144.
- Lohengrin: The Story of Wagner's Opera*. Adapted by Robert Lawrence. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1938. Pp. 42. \$0.60.
- MARTÍNEZ SIERRA, GREGORIO. *Rosina es frágil*. With Notes, Exercises, and Vocabulary by C. E. Kany. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. iv+106. \$0.40.
- MERGENDAHL, CHARLES H., and FOSTER, LE BARON R. *One Hundred Problems in Consumer Credit*. Pollak Pamphlet No. 35. Newton, Massachusetts: Pollak Foundation for Economic Research, 1938. Pp. 56. \$0.10.
- Modern Italian Short Stories*. Edited with Notes, Exercises, and Vocabulary by Thomas G. Bergin. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. viii+174. \$1.24.
- PAUSTIAN, PAUL W., and OPPENHEIMER, J. JOHN. *Problems of Modern Society: An Introduction to the Social Sciences*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xii+572. \$3.00.
- RICHARDS, DENIS. *An Illustrated History of Modern Europe, 1789-1938*. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1938. Pp. xvi+334.
- RICHERT, G. HENRY. *Retailing: Principles and Practices of Retail Buying, Advertising, Selling, and Management*. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1938. Pp. xvi+432. \$2.00.
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